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CONTENTS.

	PAGE		PAGE		PAGE
NOTES OF THE WEEK	829	MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES (continued):		CORRESPONDENCE (continued):	
LEADING ARTICLES:		A Load of Weeds from the Kailyard.		The Case of Mr. Watt	844
The International Outlook	832	By Max Beerbohm	838	The Unemployed	845
Jack in Office	833	Woods and Wealth	839	"Similarities in Dialect." By Albert	
The Position in Russia	834	A Dilettante of Letters. By Arthur		E. K. Wherry	845
Candour in Municipal Finance	835	Symons	840	Education in America	845
THE CITY	836	Bridge	842	REVIEWS:	
INSURANCE:		Chess	842	Poetry as Politics	845
Insurance in 1905	837	CORRESPONDENCE:		From the Empire to the Church	
MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES:		The Jew in Russia. By A. Weiner	843	Militant	846
Christmas Music. By John F.		Germany and the Peace of Europe.		Two Recent Thinkers	848
Runciman	837	By C. Wichmann	844	Franciscan Legends in Italian Art	849
		Nelson's Amazing Modernness. By		Il Santo	849
		Jennett Humphreys	844	NOVELS	850
				NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS	851
				SOME LAW BOOKS	852

We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

Moscow has been the only centre in which the general strike that was last week proclaimed by the revolutionaries has assumed serious proportions. It began on the 21st, and all the public services were stopped, and the city was in total darkness. On Saturday last, after martial law had been proclaimed and many arrests made, bomb-throwing and street-fighting began. Barricades were erected, and the troops attacked and destroyed them with artillery. Since then there has been a daily renewal of these scenes; the insurgents being organised so as to keep the military constantly engaged in varying quarters. The accounts of killed and wounded cannot have any claim to precision, but no doubt the loss of life has been great; the estimate mostly made being 15,000 killed and wounded. The patience of the military has been exhausted, and they have shown no disposition to act mildly, much less to fraternise with the insurgents. As the issue depended on the soldiers' loyalty, which has stood the test, the position at the end of the week is no longer what it was at the beginning, when the announcement was made that the revolutionaries had far more power than the Government and were regulating the life of the town. It is an important feature of this armed rising that it has not been supported by a rising in S. Petersburg or other great centre.

Apart from the outbreak in Moscow there seems reason for believing that as far as can be judged by dubious reports, the revolutionary violence in other places is being successfully repressed. This is true of S. Petersburg and Odessa, though there are the usual assertions by correspondents that sooner or later the measures taken will only result in further uprisings. The general strike has not been carried out and it may be said to have failed. In Poland it has failed, and S. Petersburg and Moscow have held no encouragement for the revolutionaries there. Wherever an armed rising has taken place, as at Kharkof in South Russia,

where a provisional government was formed, it has been suppressed. In the Baltic provinces it is evident that the military forces of the Government are sufficient to defeat the plans of the insurgents.

Last July the Tsar announced his intention of calling a national assembly modelled on the Russian provincial assembly of the Zemstvo and the Douma, or the council of the municipalities, but the meeting of this new form of Douma has from various causes been delayed. An Imperial Ukase has been issued ordering the elections for the Douma to be held at once. The new electoral law was also published. It is founded on voting by orders and classes, the nobility and peasants, with the inclusion of others according to payment of taxes. The election of the Douma members will not be by direct voting, but by electoral colleges chosen by the voters. It appears that though workmen in factories employing over fifty hands are to vote, their influence will be much less than that of other classes of voters. The refusal of the Tsar, acting through Count Witte's ministry, to go beyond this form of assembly has been the pretext for the revolutionary strikes and armed risings. There is reason to believe that outside the extremists public opinion approves the new law. It modifies the bureaucratic administration without affecting the Tsar's autocracy; but what further effects it may have on the life of the country is a question to which at present there can be no answer.

Seven weeks have elapsed since the Prince and Princess of Wales landed in Bombay. More than half the tour has been completed, and the record has so far been a triumphal procession, attended by all the gorgeous pomp and trappings of the East. There can be no doubt that the visit will leave a deep impression for good on the minds of the princes and people of India and their future Emperor. Indian loyalty has been enthusiastically proclaimed in places which bear indelible marks of the long struggle for supremacy between the native rulers and the East India Company, culminating in the Mutiny and the transfer of the Government to the Crown. This week the Prince has been in Lucknow—"a name very precious to us at home". Even the President of the National Congress has only appreciative words to say of the Royal tour. Whatever else the Congress may find to criticise—and its members do not hesitate to describe Lord Curzon's administration as "reactionary and

repressive"—they are assured that the benevolent interest taken in Indian affairs by Queen Victoria is shared by the King Emperor and the Prince of Wales.

Those who value Lord Kitchener's services to the country and appreciate the work he is doing in India will do well to watch the proceedings of the Government very narrowly. The Prime Minister's scarcely veiled threat in his speech at the Albert Hall is only too likely to be carried out; and Lord Kitchener will be forced to resign. No doubt it would be very pleasant to Mr. Morley to administer a rebuff to a distinguished soldier. Anything is welcome to him that will serve to belittle the military. Whether Mr. Haldane will regard this little intrigue with such complacency is doubtful. Lord Kitchener counts for much more with the public than do the politicians. The victorious soldier is more to them than the scribe and the lawyer; and if Lord Kitchener is made to resign, the country, we fancy, will want to know the reason why. Even as between Lord Kitchener and Lord Curzon we have not much doubt that popular feeling would run in favour of the soldier; Mr. Morley put in the scale, or Mr. Haldane, would kick the beam straight off. The Prime Minister knows this and will be careful to do nothing before the election. But the public must be kept informed of the conspiracy. The way for it, we note, is being prepared by statements in a Radical review to the effect that every retired Indian official is against Lord Kitchener and in favour of the old régime. This is absolutely untrue. We know personally of significant cases to the contrary.

It has been agreed that the Moorish Conference shall meet on 16 January, though whether in Algieras or Madrid no one seems to know. Apparently it will be Madrid, notwithstanding the alleged opposition of the Sultan, who is said to have declared that if Algieras did not suit, Tangier was available. As festivities in connexion with the marriage of the Infanta Maria Theresa to Prince Ferdinand of Bavaria will immediately precede the Conference, there might appear to be something in the objection to Madrid. The Conference is to meet for serious work, not for participation in the social functions which will keep the Spanish capital busy from 9 January onwards. Now that the date of the meeting has been definitely fixed, it might be well if the newspapers were to desist from raising issues which only the Conference can settle.

Mr. Lucien Wolf seems to hold curious views as to the value of evidence. In a long account in the "Times" of the purchase of the Suez Canal shares in 1875 by Great Britain he gives credit for the idea which led to the transaction not to Mr. Frederick Greenwood but to Mr. Henry Oppenheim. According to Mr. Wolf, Mr. Greenwood did nothing more than make practicable a suggestion thrown out by Mr. Oppenheim at a dinner table. Mr. Greenwood naturally regards that as a matter "most injurious" to himself, and his claim is emphatically supported by Mr. Oppenheim. Mr. Wolf thereupon says that he had to choose between Mr. Greenwood's well-known version and another. He finds that Mr. Greenwood's story stands alone and does not square with all the probabilities, though he is aware that Mr. Oppenheim concurs "in regarding Mr. Greenwood's prompt and skilful representations to Lord Derby as the essence of the matter." Mr. Oppenheim's declaration that "the idea as well as the initiative" came from Mr. Greenwood and not from himself will possibly convince even Mr. Wolf.

Mr. Raymond Préfontaine's death in Paris has deprived Canada of one of the best and most conscientious of Colonial public servants. Though he has been in evidence for twenty years past Mr. Préfontaine was hardly known in this country till three years ago when he joined Sir Wilfrid Laurier's Cabinet as Minister of Marine and Fisheries. He belonged to one of the oldest French-Canadian families, but, unlike certain other French-Canadian politicians whose names most Englishmen could mention, he did not force him-

self into notoriety by methods intended to prove that the colony must be considered at the expense of the empire. The Imperial Government's offer to convey the body to Canada on board the battleship "Dominion" is a fitting tribute to Mr. Préfontaine's loyalty and service to the Empire.

Sir Halliday Macartney's retirement from the position of Councillor to the Chinese Legation, which he has occupied since the first Chinese Embassy came to London on a mission of apology nearly thirty years ago, will hardly mark so great a departure as it appears. It is said that henceforth the Chinese Minister will run alone. It would however be an entire mistake to imagine that Sir Halliday Macartney's work at the Embassy was anything but Chinese. He has no doubt served China admirably, and well earned his rest, but for the British people the outstanding incident of his career at the Embassy was "the kidnapping of Sun Yat Sen". Sir Halliday may not have been directly responsible for the outrage, but he at least defended it. From his long association with Chinese affairs—he assisted Gordon in suppressing the Taiping rebellion—Sir Halliday's point of view grew to be essentially Eastern. He indeed regarded himself as more Chinese than British, and like Sir Robert Hart is a sufferer from "Pekin fever".

The Government has managed to revive mistrust and hostility in South Africa by its Chinese labour move, and Mr. Burns, in Battersea on Wednesday, made just that "unwise speech on the part of a member of the Government" which may have ill effects in the near future. At present the Government is stopping importation, though nobody quite knows how Ministers are to take action without involving themselves in serious litigation; but Mr. Burns' pious hope is that deportation itself will be undertaken as soon as circumstances allow. Meantime, South Africa awaits developments. So many interests—from those of the Boer farmer to those of the mine-owner—are involved that it is believed Lord Elgin will hesitate to carry matters to extremes. Mrs. Henry Fawcett's testimony to the value and desirability of Chinese labour, which she would like to see extended in South Africa—even to domestic service—is so awkward for her Radical friends that some of them now plaintively deny any objection to Chinese labour. What they oppose is serfdom, and of that independent investigators have found no trace.

A Parliamentary candidate does not often get the leader of his party to come and speak for him on the very day he is formally chosen candidate. Indeed Mr. Craig Sellar may have established a record by capturing Mr. Balfour for his first meeting at Haddington on Tuesday. But the object was not so much to win the seat—even though Mr. Balfour is personally interested of course in this—as to impress on Unionists throughout the country how they ought to vote when such an attractive figure as Mr. Haldane is dangled before them. Mr. Haldane is one of a small, brilliant band of Liberals whom we all wish to see prominent in public life. For one thing, it is well from a strictly Conservative point of view that the Liberal party should have its leaven of men like Mr. Haldane. It seems a pity both parties cannot agree to elect without contest say half a dozen men of this stamp on either side, just as the Speaker with rare exceptions is elected. It would add to the amenity of party politics and it would be very interesting—if delicate—work choosing the favoured ones.

Unfortunately such bargains are not struck outside Utopia, and Mr. Balfour is fully justified in doing all in his power to unseat Mr. Haldane in East Lothian. Mr. Haldane has joined the Government pledged to Home Rule, which Mr. Balfour declares "the greatest, the greatest of all questions which can absorb the interests of the citizens of this country". It is the pride of the Liberals that they are now prepared to contest every constituency in the kingdom. They are even adding to Lord Hugh Cecil's difficulties at Greenwich. It is

a policy of thorough, and Unionists can only meet it in the same spirit.

Mr. George Whiteley's first act of patronage in his new office has made some of the Liberals unhappy. It appears that as Chief Whip he sent to Mr. Horatio Bottomley, who is standing as a Liberal for South Hackney, this note: "I greatly hope that you may win the fight, and may be able to take your seat in the new Parliament as a supporter of the strong Government which the Prime Minister has formed". Very naturally Mr. Bottomley is using this to push his candidature. Meanwhile Mr. Riley, Congregationist minister, has come forward in the Liberal interest, and a number of Liberals wish to support him. Hence the "Daily News" makes light of the message the Chief Whip sent to Mr. Bottomley. "Mr. Bottomley", it remarks, "is endeavouring to make out that he has the support of the Chief Liberal Whip".

If Mr. Whiteley's message is not to be taken as official support, we shall be curious to learn what in the world it means. According to the "Daily News" the same message, lithographed, was sent to Liberal candidates throughout the country; and we are expected, apparently, to regard this as against Mr. Bottomley. But why? Surely the fact that the Patronage Secretary of the Treasury did the job on a large scale and cheaply does not weaken Mr. Bottomley's right to regard the message as hearty official support? No, Mr. Whiteley cannot possibly go back on his word. But we would suggest to him to send a copy of the lithographed letter to Mr. Riley as well. In this way he will satisfy both claimants.

It is pretty clear that many influential Liberals, if their side has a working majority after the General Election, will be intent not to strike at the Upper House so much as to refurbish the Lower. Mr. Labouchere declares himself in favour of this and holds forth on standing rules, obstruction and the like. What an inspiring policy for a party that has been long out of office and is expected to do great things for the poor and the workless. House of Commons procedure reforms are so very satisfying to the public. Mr. Labouchere is in favour of no speaker being allowed more than twenty minutes. This again is a matter of profound importance to a population which does not hear and does not read the debates.

There is some excuse for the boisterous note of egoism which ran through great part of the speech of Mr. Burns to his Battersea constituents on Wednesday. But its tone will not be so acceptable to the wider audience whom Mr. Burns as a Cabinet Minister now addresses. There was nothing in the speech which can be called a declaration of policy: it was all too general and full of vague if well-intentioned aspiration. We shall be more curious after Mr. Burns has had some experience of actual work to hear whether he will be able to speak with the same gusto of what he has been able to accomplish. Members of Governments have before now explained why they accepted office in a Ministry but Mr. Burns' reason is surely the most mysterious ever given. He had to choose, he said, whether for the next ten years he should indulge perhaps in the impotency of intrigue, or should accept an office which in their day and generation he could make fruitful of good works. There was no mystery about the rest of the speech which was quite on the ordinary electioneering lines; the sort of thing which will be expected from every Liberal candidate.

Mr. Lloyd-George at Carnarvon on Thursday kept his claws in. He was all for moderation and justice to the Church; he had no desire whatever to hurt her. No political enemy of the Church ever had in public. However, few of the Church mice of Wales are likely to trust this velvet paw. Churchmen should gird themselves for a great effort. The metropolitan Bishops' appeal for funds for repairs of Church schools should remind them of the urgency of their responsibility in the field of religious education. Liberal

leaders are desirous of lulling the Church vote into apathy by a show of moderation. The Church should answer them by a vigorous assertion of her rights. One plea put forward by Mr. Lloyd-George must be dismissed at once. The only alternative, he says, for universal undenominationalism is secular education only. That is a false statement. By repealing the Cowper-Temple clause it is easy to provide for religious teaching in schools meeting the needs of every church equally, as also of parents who prefer for their children undenominational teaching. We note that Mr. Lloyd-George has the effrontery to claim Lord Hugh Cecil as a supporter of his view. We trust Lord Hugh will contradict this promptly.

A great deal is being made of Lord Carrington's enthusiasm for small holdings. The new President of the Board of Agriculture, it is urged, has tried it with remarkable success on his own land in Lincolnshire. Rents of thirty-five shillings an acre, even forty shillings and over, are mentioned. We fancy that if the average English landlord were sure of getting half as good a rent as this out of his farmland he would be happy enough to turn it into small holdings. Anybody who has the least practical experience of ordinary English arable land and pasture knows that it is ridiculous to talk of such prices. Ten shillings an acre is much more to the point. If the Lincolnshire small holders on Lord Carrington's land are paying forty shillings an acre and thriving, either they or the land must be amazingly rich.

It is pleasant and right for a rich peer to have his "public-spirited" hobbies, and we hope that the President of the Board of Agriculture will experiment more generously than ever with small holders or peasant proprietors, building model houses and farm buildings for every one of them. But to talk and write about bringing the people "back to the land" by small holdings, legislation and the like is trumpery. It was not unsatisfied hunger for the land that caused the rural exodus, but railways, telegraphs, newspapers, elementary—very elementary—education, and the knowledge that the towns were full of life and excitement. A great deal of trash, moreover, is being indulged in about the best countrymen going to the towns and the villages being left to the idiots and the halt and paralytic. As sober fact the better man has, as a rule, stayed in the village; and as a result we have in some places an increase in natural small holders who under the old order of country life would have been mere farm labourers.

If Sir Edwin Cornwall can arrange his entente municipale very soon the London County Councillor will be fully occupied in paying ceremonial visits to Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Buda-Pesth, and probably to New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia. It seems a very ingenious device for obtaining a cheap holiday; though Sir Edwin, of course, does not propose this as the direct object of his scheme. But then neither did the British Association nor the Church Congress or other highly serious annual assemblies originally propose so; though that is now their principal feature. The public were rather amused with the visit of the Paris Councillors; but they could easily be bored with too much of the same kind of thing. Sir Edwin makes one seemingly good proposition: an interchange of students between London and various Continental cities. This could be arranged without speech-making and banqueting. And if London Councillors really do want to know about foreign tram-works and drains, and electric lighting and waterworks, the same remark is also relevant. It would be unfortunate if the London County Council became too much of a tourist agency.

If statistics were more to be trusted than they are, we might have some interesting deductions from the police courts in Christmas week. Why, for instance, is there so much difference in point of numbers between different districts; and why should a district which might be expected to have a less number of police offences, especially drunkenness, have more? The West End courts, such as Marlborough Street and West London, have

more cases than Tower Bridge or Thames Street. Lambeth is the highest, it is true, with seventy-five, but West Ham, a poverty-stricken district, has only half as many as Lambeth, and little more than half the West End figures. But why has Tottenham only two, and Brentford only seven? They are both poor districts, and they are populous. It might perhaps be said that the West End has many pleasure seekers. But that does not account for the difference between Tottenham and Lambeth. We cannot infer that people drink at home in Tottenham and so escape the police, while at Lambeth they drink in the public-houses and so run into danger; or that Tottenham is really more sober than Lambeth. Another cause might be suggested in the leniency or severity of the police. But that again does not explain the difficulties.

The returns as to Christmas railway traffic are agreeably surprising after all the lugubrious reading and talking of bad trade and the unemployed during the year. Bad weather more than bad trade seems to affect the spending of money at Christmas, and as we have had one of the finest Christmas weeks on record most of the railway companies have made a record in their passenger and goods traffic. This was not only the case with the great London centres; the same satisfactory story to shareholders also comes from the provincial centres. Those who remained in London had probably as good weather as could be found anywhere; but people do not stop in London for good weather, and the South Coast resorts and the Channel Islands and the Continent received more than their usual number of visitors at this season of the year. And we find that there are still people who take bicycles away with them for amusement. Within three days no fewer than 403 of these irksome machines were sent from Paddington alone. Why should one hamper himself with a bicycle when he is going away for pleasure?

Might there not be a heavy ad valorem export duty on objects of great historic or artistic interest which are sold by English people to Americans and others? The public is a loser when a great work of art or a manuscript is taken out of the country—let it at least insist on some recompense in money. But works of art are not the only things which might well be dealt with in this way. Ormonde, probably the greatest racehorse, if not the most faultless, of all time, was sold to America by the Duke of Westminster, who in a single year netted between twenty-four and twenty-five thousand pounds by his winnings. There is some irony in the fact announced by the "Times" that what remains of Ormonde has just been given back to England by Mr. Macdonough who paid £30,000 for him years ago. The skull and limb bones of the great horse have been given to the trustees of the British Museum. It is an act of courtesy and right feeling in Mr. Macdonough, and we must not look a gift horse in the mouth. But it would have been better to keep the living Ormonde in England and give his carcase to America.

The Rokeby Velasquez is not yet secured for the nation; but we have good hopes that it will be. A substantial sum has been collected, and British lovers of art are not often so wanting in patriotism as to allow a great work to be lost when only the finishing-touches, as it were, of finance are needed to keep it in the country. The burden of work is to raise a sum sufficient to make a really good start. People then see there is business in the proposal and are willing to consider it. Gifts of £100,000 have been flying about of late: surely someone will come forward with a tenth of that sum to secure a definite national object. Giving money to buy a great picture has this advantage over giving it to advance a social reform or to compete in an international race; you can make sure of doing what you mean to do. There is no fear of wasting money on the wrong persons. Would-be subscribers will hardly be deterred by the sundry red-herrings that have been trailed across the purchase of this picture. That it is not Venus we shall be buying but a peasant-girl is hardly a more serious matter than that the peasant-girl is without clothes. *Honi soit.*

THE INTERNATIONAL OUTLOOK.

IT may be illogical, but there is none the less irresistible temptation, at the close of a year, to review the international situation and to take stock of the mutual relations of the Great Powers. The situation to-day is to some extent more complicated than it was a year ago, even though at that time the war between Russia and Japan was in full blast. This arises from two causes, the pending Conference on Morocco and the condition of Russia. At the beginning of 1905 it was already certain that the North Sea incident would not lead to war and it had become clear that none of the Powers intended to be drawn into the vortex of the Far Eastern struggle. The affairs of Morocco were at that time assumed to concern none but France and England, and in a less degree Spain. To-day, though peace has ensued between Japan and Russia, the internal condition of Russia is such as to make her for the time almost a negligible quantity in European politics. We are therefore faced with an even more serious complication than we were a year ago. Early in the year it became evident that trouble was brewing between France and Germany. The agreements made by the Republic with three of her neighbours clearly aimed at the isolation of Germany, or what was equivalent to that—the settlement of certain questions without consulting her first. There are various ways of informing friendly Governments of political arrangements concluded between others, and the way selected of conveying the information to Germany was not that which distinguishes Powers who are on the best of terms.

The negligence of the French Government to push its claims in Morocco, or rather we should say its incapacity to take vigorous action, chiefly owing to the anti-militarist section in the Chamber, gave the German Emperor an opportunity to check the campaign conducted by M. Delcassé, and M. Delcassé fell. From the point of view of international relations this is, perhaps, the most striking event of the last twelve months, for the world had come to regard him as the indispensable man of French politics. Unquestionably his disappearance from the arena left France poorer in every respect. Whatever excuse may be found for the line taken by M. Rouvier's Government, M. Delcassé's resignation was an acknowledgment of weakness, and the French position both in Europe and Morocco has been irretrievably weakened in consequence. The Moorish Sultan has ever since been playing the familiar game of exploiting the jealousies of Western Powers. In fact affairs in that country have become something like a reproach to Europe, and the whole situation as it presents itself just before the opening of the Conference can but arouse some apprehension. France, owing to the geographical situation of her African colonies, cannot afford to see any other Power predominant in those parts; but on her side she has shown a marked incapacity to keep order or even to take the first steps in that direction. Great Britain surrendered an extremely strong position in Morocco in order to please France but finds British trade and British subjects suffering from French laches. To add to the irony of the complication Germany is contending for a principle which we have specially recognised in our treaty with Japan, the open door. Obviously too it is far more to British interest to enjoy perpetual freedom of trade in Morocco than to enjoy it only for a term of thirty years. We find ourselves therefore in this highly complicated dilemma. If the entente cordiale is to be preserved on the footing of the existing enthusiasm we must be prepared to back France in the Conference through thick and thin; but in doing so we run a considerable risk of seriously injuring our own trade prospects and of establishing a rival opposite Gibraltar whom we would rather have away. On the other hand if we do not back France we lay ourselves open to charges, baseless no doubt but still plausible, of selfishness and perfidy such as would find a ready hearing among a suspicious and susceptible people who would eagerly fasten on another nation as a scapegoat for the loss of prestige which is entirely due to the incapacity of its own Government.

We hope that our own Foreign Office will go into the Conference with very clear ideas as to the exact

amount of backing France is to receive from us and also that Germany may be assured in friendly fashion exactly as to her chances of affecting our position. We did not enter into an arrangement with France in order to establish Germany in a privileged place in Morocco. We cannot of course prevent Germany from occupying ground that we vacated in order to oblige another, but there are some points on which we should take a stand, such as the cession of territory menacing our position on the Mediterranean, where our interests and those of France are at one. In any case we regard the prospect of the Conference not without apprehension. Undoubtedly there still exists in this country a prejudice against Germany, though there are not wanting signs that the ill feeling which is to a great extent artificial and press-made is waning. Had war been possible last summer between France and Germany, this country might easily have found herself involved. We believe however that this is a possibility remoter than it was. After all, as Prince von Bülow has admitted, the interests of Germany in Morocco itself are few; it is interesting to her mainly as affecting her European standing.

But while we see in the Moorish question serious possibilities we gladly recognise a considerable slackening of the tension in the Balkans. Here the preoccupations of Russia make for peace, since so long as she is incapacitated her friends among the smaller States are hardly likely to stir. We gravely doubt whether the manner in which the Sultan has accepted the proposals of the Powers holds out any real ground for anticipating wide changes for the better in Macedonia. We have however this point to the good. The nominees of Europe have at all events the acknowledged right to supervise the collection and expenditure of the Macedonian revenues. They have plainly no complete control at present and the voice of the Sultan is still nominally supreme in all disputes. This undoubtedly will lead to delay and evasion and will ultimately have to be removed. But this can only be the work of time. At present the fact that financial supervision has passed to Europe registers a step in advance on any taken before. Europe is not ready for heroic remedies in this quarter and the Powers were therefore well advised to take the considerable concessions offered. Austria is no more prepared for strong action than Russia. The separatist tendencies in Hungary have become more pronounced during the last year. We have seen the prolongation of a sterile and demoralising constitutional conflict which has done much to discredit Hungarian patriotism. One outcome is the adoption by the Government of a programme of universal suffrage, an appeal to the populace to redress the balance upset by Magyar exclusiveness. All this tends to weaken the Triple Alliance now still further impaired by the tendency of Italy towards France which has been a marked feature of the new century. The substitution of the Marchese di San Giuliano for Signor Tittoni as Foreign Minister will not change Italian policy. This is inclining to agreement with Austria on the basis of autonomy for Macedonia and the independence of Albania as its ultimate aim. Meanwhile the popular feeling of Italy turns more and more against the Triplice, and we seriously doubt whether in the case of a war between France and Germany, especially of one in which this country might be involved, Italy would fight at all.

On the whole, except as regards Morocco, this country can regard the foreign outlook with satisfaction. Though undoubtedly the credit for the peace-making of Portsmouth is primarily President Roosevelt's our own part in it was of more account than the world acknowledged. Our policy demanded peace even more than the commercial interests of the United States and our new alliance with Japan may be looked upon as the fruit of speedy peace no less than its inducement. It was not the fault of our Government if the internal state of Russia has falsified our hopes. In the Far East we may expect tranquillity for some years which it is to be hoped we shall turn to good account to perfect our arrangements for the defence of India. We have however no faith in the possibility of protecting India by Japanese assistance. If we could the experiment would be fraught with danger, and in the event of a really great war Japan could do little

for us on land, for her resources are after all limited, and she would need all her men to defend the immense stretch of frontier she has recently acquired.

A change of government in this country is clearly recognised as not implying change in foreign policy, and the mischievous talk about diminishing armaments can hardly be much more than talk. Such language is common form on Liberal platforms, and the sentiment of all nations on this matter is "que messieurs les assassins commencent". This may be deplorable, but it is no less inevitable in the present condition of international affairs than it was when war was actually on foot.

JACK IN OFFICE.

MR. BURNS takes himself so seriously as to make it almost impossible to take him seriously at all. His Battersea speech was in such a tone that one feels it would be absurd to regard it as a thing to be answered—on his own maxim,

the noblest answer to it all
was simply silence: let him bawl.

Mr. Burns may be a very interesting figure—he certainly has his points—but when he proceeds to entertain the world with his views on every subject under the sun, in the style and with the air of an elementary school-teacher instructing infants, we would rather listen to someone else. We would rather for instance hear Jack Burns haranguing on Tower Hill—he is in earnest there and talks straight without any fine language—we would very much rather hear Mr. Macdonald of the London Trades Council; we should listen with more pleasure and probably more profit to Mr. Keir Hardie. We do not in the least object to difference of opinion from ourselves: that but adds to the interest of the discussion; but we do not enjoy listening to platitudes clothed in shabby-genteel language. Mr. Burns has lost his chance: and we are sorry for it. We can welcome a labour member, when he is a labour member; and in Mr. Burns' inclusion in the Cabinet labour was supposed at last to have obtained national recognition of its true dignity. Thus the occasion of his first speech was interesting. How would he take his promotion? Would he be a workman still, and speak simply, straight from the heart, as a workman? Or would the minister spoil the working-man? What we were all looking for, now that labour was in the Cabinet itself, was a real grappling with industrial and social questions, direct dealing, free from all politicians' blague. Instead of this it was just the old wretched story; the successful man struggling to be what he is not, straining at a language as foreign and impossible to him as Greek or Latin. The old petty failure that is neither one thing nor the other; the working-man lost and nothing else gained. It is and has ever been the bane of labour representation that the working-man who enters the House is rapidly converted into a middle-class type of the least attractive order. We are not referring to trifles such as dress: we have always wondered that a man of Mr. Keir Hardie's intellect cannot see that by making himself singular in these little things he does not dignify labour but makes himself foolish. There is nothing workmanlike in offending against decorum. But it is, or should be, perfectly possible to comply with ordinary usage in externals and yet retain the mind of the workman. Yet it is not often done: and none is more sensitive to the fact than the working-man out of Parliament. He perceives the change in his old "pal" and resents it. This explains the evident fact that labour does not very largely trust so-called labour representatives. So far as we have been able to observe, the average working-man dislikes the small middle-class man, who returns the compliment with his whole heart, more than any other type; and so very naturally he resents the change he sees come over nearly all the men he helps to send to Parliament and subscribes to keep there. We are informed that in Battersea at this moment Mr. Burns is more popular with the middle-class society of that district than with the working-men, and it does not at all surprise us. His speech of Wednesday will probably strengthen his hold on the

shopkeeper and the little tradesman. It has about it all the ring of prosperous and respectable vulgarity.

However we cannot dismiss the President of the Local Government Board as we can dismiss Mr. John Burns. The Minister is entrusted with considerable powers in matters in which we are especially interested: we want to see what he intends to do. Unfortunately he said nothing about what he intended to do: not one single concrete reform did he discuss: unless we must regard the committee on the form of ratepayers' accounts as a great practical measure. But in generalities the President was strong indeed. He will be everything that a Minister ought to be: he will put right a world long out of joint; he will be every good man's friend and every bad man's enemy. Hear him. "He was, as he had ever been, the repository of" (the working-man's) "social hopes, industrial aims, and political ideals. He should tread the road of duty as firmly and as briskly in his new office as he had done in Price's candle works and onwards. . . . As hitherto, he would pander to no section, but would do his duty fairly and fearlessly for the benefit of the community. . . . From him private enterprise would get fair play and just treatment; municipal activity would be similarly treated. . . . The fraudulent would have no friend in him. The labourer who worked would have so much of his sympathy that he would have none to spare for the loafer who shirked. The poor oppressed citizen would have his ear, but the plausible cadge never. The pushful philanthropist, the economical amateur, the industrial quack, the purveyor of social nostrums and charitable schemes would have a stern critic in him". Heavens! One begins to think of the funeral oration of Perikles with its antiphonic catalogue of Athenian virtues. But Perikles was not a braggart and Mr. Burns is not Perikles. These great efforts do not become him. No doubt the occasion was a big one for him, but he would attain to more dignity if he were a little less dignified. As for his social policy it is impossible to get at it. He prefers remedies to palliatives; so do all of us: none the less the man is a fool who refuses to make use of a palliative when he cannot find a remedy. He wants to stop the rush to the towns and to keep the people on the land: so does everybody else: but how does he propose to do it? He does not say. On housing, perhaps the greatest social question his department deals with, he had not a suggestion to make. We expected better things of Mr. Burns.

It is significant that the President of the Local Government Board was more expansive and very much more concrete on imperial and foreign questions than on his own business. The South African war was a crime, and is the cause of all the high taxes and high rates of to-day, and of the increase in the unemployed. He hopes to see the deportation of all Chinese labour from South Africa. This was probably a wholly irresponsible remark, but the Transvaal should take note of it. He will fight for ever against "Orientalised Imperialism". So would we, and so would any man, if we knew what it meant. More intelligible is the assertion that the money of Battersea had been "wasted in Africa, Tibet, Somaliland, the Soudan. Imperialism of that sort devoured the substance of the people who were conquered and ended in the bankruptcy of the conquerors". This passage sums up Mr. Burns' capacity for dealing with imperial questions. Only this week the news of the state visit of the Tashi Lama of Tibet and the Tongsa Penlop of Bhutan (how hard is it for such names to be taken seriously) to the Viceroy of India is, to all who know enough to appreciate its significance, a brilliant justification of the Tibet expedition and proves the complete preponderance of British influence in those regions. And the Soudan, tell anyone who knows of the work of reconstruction that is going on there that "imperialism of that sort devours the substance of the people conquered". The restoration of the Soudan is one of the enterprises of British energy with which the foreigner can find no fault. It is left for a British Minister, this cheap-jack in office, to do that. Perhaps he thought it necessary to belittle Lord Kitchener's foundation in the Soudan to give countenance to his removal by a Liberal Government from the Indian command. Does Mr.

Asquith, does Sir Edward Grey, does Mr. Haldane, who call themselves, every one of them, imperialists, endorse this sort of language? What is their answer to Mr. Balfour's question? For what other purpose did they make a Liberal League of their own but to separate themselves from precisely this sort of Liberalism? But that was done when there was no chance of their getting into office. Now they have agreed to sink their differences; and their principles seem likely to go to the bottom along with the differences.

THE POSITION IN RUSSIA.

THERE has been of late a noticeable change in the tone of English speakers and writers on affairs in Russia. They have become less offensive and dogmatically intolerant towards the Russian Government, and do not invariably assume that everything the Government does is wrong and everything the revolutionaries do is right. The end of the war may have had something to do with this more chastened tone. It may be that some of our patriots no longer think that loyalty to Japan demands the declaration of hatred to Russia. Besides this they have very likely taken alarm at the fact that their protégés the revolutionaries have pushed matters to extremes and show little inclination to stop just at the point where liberty begins to blossom into license. For these patrons of Social Democrats and instigators of general strikes are by no means advocates of socialism and trade unionism in their own country. They are here the upholders of law, order and the rights of property and they are becoming afraid that their Russian friends are declared enemies of both. Unexceptionable monarchists, they find the street fighters of Moscow and S. Petersburg are there with the intention of establishing a republic if they should be successful. They are beginning to think that matters have gone far enough and that they should stop just at the precise point at which they themselves would be satisfied. It was all very well that the Russian Government should be embarrassed at home and abroad, but not so well when they began to observe that European peace might be endangered and the European balance of power disturbed; perhaps especially that financial disaster might spread from Russia through Europe and many comfortable people be driven into panic at last who were very complacent at first.

In short they have become afraid for their own skins, and their zeal has consequently slackened as the danger has increased. Their alarm gives reason for a cynical amusement; but the reaction is by no means unusual amongst friends of revolution of their particular type. From whatever causes it may spring, however, the change is to be welcomed. Writers in the press have been the greatest offenders and some of the lesser politicians have followed their example. But no politician of the first rank has forgotten himself so far as to give voice to the hostile feeling against the Russian Government which has prevailed amongst the rank and file of both parties, though the sentiments dictating it have been different. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's allusion to Russia at the Albert Hall was unexceptionable; and a leader of his party has more natural temptations to stray into dangerous comment on such events as are happening in Russia than a leader of the Conservative party. The distressed nationality and repressed liberty have been claimed by Liberalism as its peculiar topic; though Liberalism has generally been as weak-kneed and impotent when serious business arises as it is at the present moment in Russia. Mr. Burns is one member at least of the Government who must exercise considerable discretion and put restraint on himself to refrain from publicly backing the Russian brethren who are popular amongst the people who look up to Mr. Burns. This has been a temptation to which both parties have been exposed in the past; they have both fallen into it and in consequence been led into giving public expression to an hostility towards Russia which would have been better repressed. Liberals have avowed themselves anti-imperialists and anti-expansionists, and they might consistently reproach and denounce Russia for her imperialism and policy of expansion. But our Con-

servative imperialists have reproached and denounced Russia for being disciples of their own school; and they have rejoiced over the troubles in Russia though they have been brought about by a class of persons who would have been stigmatised as Little Englanders if their operations had been in this country. They have taken the same line towards Germany, where much bad blood has been made by the ostentatious approval the Social Democrats have received here because they have opposed the naval and military policy of the German Government. Our imperialists have patronised a party whom patriotic Germans regard as "Little Germanists", just as much as Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and Mr. Lloyd-George are regarded by Conservatives as Little Englanders.

In the present phase of the Russian welter we think that public expression of partisan sympathy with either of the opposing forces is undesirable. It will be better not to trumpet them too much, though we may all, of course, have our opinions based on such information as is available. One may hold, as we do, that the declared objects for which the revolutionaries are fighting are impossible and chimerical; that they are fighting for a form of government which cannot be worked in Russia; that therefore they are wasting the strength of the country and obstructing its true interests. To others the point of view may be that it would be strange if no attempt were made to alter the system of government which existed before the Tsar's manifesto. It can at any rate be said that the Tsar's Government has admitted that changes were required, and the appointment of Count Witte's Ministry, with the publication of the Tsar's ukase of 6 August and his October manifesto, was an indication of intention to remove many restrictive regulations, such as the power of arbitrary imprisonment and exile, the censorship and other press laws. The removal of certain officials who were unpopular was also a further indication of the new spirit. But though the Tsar was thus acting in a new mode through Count Witte's Ministry, it has never been intended to call together a representative parliamentary assembly of the nation, under whatever restrictions of franchise, with full powers of law-making and control of administration. Russia has an old system of provincial and district representation known as the Zemstvo whose members were elected by the peasantry, householders in towns and landed proprietors; but since 1890 with the increased centralising activity of the bureaucracy the representation has been reduced, the power of the nobility in the Zemstvo has been enlarged and the popular element restricted. The towns and cities are also organised on the Zemstvo model and their councils known as the Dumas; but since 1894 they also have been shorn of their popular elements and placed under Imperial governors. If a Constituent Assembly or Parliament cannot be allowed, the Government has sought a middle course by convoking a national assembly framed on the model of the Zemstvo and Douma assemblies which is spoken of as the Douma and is now, by an Imperial Ukase just issued, to meet in February or March. After all the delay since the Bouluquin programme, as it was called, was announced last July, it now appears with very little alteration; and in view of all that has happened in the interval and is now happening, and of the demands both of the Social Democrats and the Constitutionalists for universal suffrage, it is significant that the Government still abides by its original proposals. This implies a confidence in its strength which cannot be mistaken. The members of the Douma are not to be chosen by direct representation, but by electoral colleges, and in these colleges the workmen are likely to be poorly represented. But it is to be observed that the question of universal suffrage as well as some other points have been reserved for consideration in the Douma itself. The electors are various kinds of taxpayers, or householders holding in their own name; but the workmen in different factories are to send delegates in proportion to the numbers employed in each factory: factories employing not less than fifty men and up to a thousand to send one delegate; those with over a thousand workmen sending an additional delegate for every thousand. As political

bodies the provincial Zemstvo and the Douma have no political functions; but evidently the national assembly might become an important focus of political opinion.

The uncertainty of the situation is the part which this assembly may yet play when it meets. The Social Democrats whose aims are the overthrow of the Tsardom and the establishment of a republic naturally opposed the policy of the Witte Ministry. But it was not unreasonable to expect that the mercantile, capitalist, and professional classes, the bourgeois generally, who are opposed to the republican and economic theories of the Social Democrats, would have been found supporting Count Witte. But these classes have been for the Constituent Assembly and constitutional government; and Count Witte has failed to bring them over to his side. With the usual timidity and half-heartedness of their class they have neither supported the Social Democrats nor Count Witte. They have fallen between the two stools and as a consequence they have had to look on helplessly while the Social Democrats have organised the political strikes which have been the ruin of business and property. They have left Count Witte to fight the movement of republican socialism until the only hope for themselves and the other classes who do not seek the overthrow of the throne and the social system is in the suppression by military force of the republican rising.

CANDOUR IN MUNICIPAL FINANCE.

WE hope the newly-appointed committee on the presentation of municipal accounts will have some practical result; for a thorough and comprehensive audit is the only way in which the truth about municipal undertakings can be arrived at. We cannot understand why advocates of municipal enterprise oppose this very necessary step. If the audit show a profit their policy at once derives added support; if a loss they have but to convince their fellow-townsmen that the loss is more than made up by the general good resulting to the community at large. In any case an argument dealing with figures must not be founded on a false balance-sheet. The position is at present more than invidious for the supporter of municipal enterprise, who, too often compelled to rely on the argument of profit alone, meets at once not only an absolute denial of the correctness of his figures, but the direct suggestion that they are manipulated to suit his own purpose. The proper defence of municipal enterprise is the intrinsic value of the undertaking—moral as well as material—to the people rather than attempts to show a pecuniary profit, and if this view be accepted municipalities ought to be the first to welcome a thorough and efficient audit. The existing audit in municipalities is what the majority of the Council and the officials care to make it. The law requires the election of "elective auditors" but carefully omits every provision which can render their work effective. Over non-municipal bodies there is certainly more control exercised by the staff of auditors appointed by the Local Government Board, but even these officials have no power to probe into realities. An auditor should be not only skilled but independent, preferably appointed for a term of years, and not eligible for re-appointment to the same municipality. Power should also be given to call in business experts to assist the auditor when he is dealing with a business undertaking. Only thus can duty untempted by self-interest fearlessly be done. Refusal to accept an efficient audit places supporters of municipal enterprise on the horns of an awkward dilemma. If the matter is merely one of profit and loss, a proper audit follows as a matter of course; if not a matter of money, why refuse the audit? The principle must stand on its merits, and the sooner this is admitted the sooner will friends and enemies come together and possibly find they have much common ground.

Apart from any particular view on the question of municipal enterprise, there is little doubt that the present system of assessment for rating purposes not only entails considerable hardship on individual ratepayers but is a direct incentive to wasteful expenditure

by careless local authorities. Under the Public Health Act borrowing powers are limited to twice the assessable value; consequently when the rates are high and the legal limit is at hand, there is a strong temptation on the part of local authorities to raise their assessment beyond the limit justified by local conditions. Though the practice is not in general use it is evident from the fate of recent appeals to Quarter Sessions that some local authorities have attempted this method of escape from their difficulties. Such a manner of cloaking expenditure should not be permitted. The rates are the only legitimate means of showing the liabilities a ratepayer has to meet, and it is wrong to lull him into false security by the apparent reduction which often follows on a re-assessment. The smaller ratepayer—and he after all is the principal sufferer—often has his assessment unjustifiably raised; the amount is small to him, too small to appeal about, but in the aggregate the local authority benefits considerably. Under the present system of assessment the valuation is practically in the hands of the same people who compose the spending authorities, and this in the long run cannot work for economy. The Government attempted, by the introduction of the 1904 Valuation Bill, to remedy this defect by making the ultimate assessment authorities the County Borough and the County Council, working through local committees and covering larger areas than the union assessment committees now in existence. The Bill died quickly. The subject was too technical for the average member of Parliament, and not likely to bring him any access of voting strength in his constituency. As to counties the alteration was all for good, but the boroughs remained practically as before. What can be said against the appointment of entirely independent valuers under similar conditions to those suggested in the case of auditors? For large assessments the existing appeal should be preserved, as county quarter sessions and recorders are a body of men not only fair and judicial but well acquainted with local conditions. In the case of small assessments the ratepayer suffers a real hardship. Often his valuation is raised a small amount only but he endures what he firmly believes to be an injustice because the remedy is more expensive than the evil. Appeals in the case of smaller assessments should not be allowed to go beyond Petty Sessions. The alteration suggested in the system of assessment would entirely remove from dishonest authorities the temptation to disguise their expenditure by arbitrary re-assessments, and would moreover clearly show an honest valuation to any probable creditors when a loan was asked for. With the assessment in independent hands, and an honest balance sheet the expenditure of local authorities would always be clearly reflected by their rates, from which all capital liability would be clearly deducible.

Many people believe in sound and straightforward municipal enterprise but they will never support it so long as there is any suspicion that everything is not aboveboard. This suspicion exists to-day and can only be removed by submitting to what after all is expedient, reasonable and easily done.

THE CITY.

AS the Stock Exchange was closed four days out of the seven our survey of the week must necessarily be briefer than usual. Money was wanted in considerable amounts for the settlement which began last Wednesday, and as the demand is rather greater than the supply rates were firm, and nothing like monetary ease is yet apparent. On Thursday we were treated to one of those Wall Street sensations, which have been rather frequent of late, and which are so trying to the nerves of the operator. On Wednesday evening the American market may without exaggeration be said to have been booming. Union Pacifics rose to 153, Canadian Pacifics to over 179, Baltimores to 116½, Trunk Ordinaries to 24, and Steel Commons to 41½. On Thursday morning there came a killing frost in the shape of cabled prices from Wall Street, Unions 150, Canadas 176, Baltimores 114 11-16, Steel Commons 40, and so on. The accompanying

explanation was that call money in New York had risen to 60 and 90 per cent., and would be put by the banks to 100. As such a state of things is obviously absurd in a civilised country for more than a few hours, unless there is a regular panic, the market here was not so frightened as it might have been, and showed its courage by opening Yankees a dollar above parity all round. We have frequently pointed out to our readers that Stock Exchange dealings in New York are settled every day, and that therefore the rates for loans look much higher than they are, and that besides the sensational prices for money quoted by the financial papers mean nothing. None the less is it a fact that money is very scarce in New York, and the bankers are determined to make it appear scarcer than it really is, in order to put out of the market if they can the ragged division of punters. Mr. Secretary Shaw is also apparently much shocked by the gambling in Wall Street, and will do nothing to aid and abet it. The net result of this dearth of money in New York is that very large amounts of American shares are being carried over in London for account of the "pools" and big operators on the other side. If money should get abnormally dear in London, there might be a collapse of some of the "pools", and a heavy fall in all Yankees in consequence. But it is the natural course of things for money to be dear during the last week of the year, and to get cheaper in January, and it is merely a question of how soon this natural relief will come about. The present tension may endure till the middle of January, as we foretold last week, or it may be over by next week. Two favourable facts should always be remembered about the United States, first, that unlike the old European nations, they have no accumulation of war debts hanging round their neck, and, second, that their commercial expansion during the year has been unprecedented. An investor or speculator is always certain of getting his money back in Yankees ultimately, however prices may tumble for the moment in a money flurry. As soon as this money supply is settled, we are convinced that Steel Commons will be taken in hand, and will have a sharp and substantial rise before Easter. We suppose that by this time Mr. Lawson and his Boston backers are humbled to the dust by the "bulls" of copper, unless the Lawsonians have turned round and joined the majority. The rise of Anacondas to over 12 is quite phenomenal.

The new Radical Government has dealt its long-dreaded blow at the hated Kaffir magnate and the Jingo Stock Exchange, but their kindly intention of producing a slump has been quite frustrated. On the morning after Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's speech in the Albert Hall, upon the crude announcement that no more Chinese were to be imported, there was a slight spasm of alarm, and Rand Mines and East Rands and Consolidated Goldfields all fell about 7s. 6d. a share. But when it was ascertained that 11,000 more Chinamen had already been contracted for, that some were on the seas, and that the rest were shortly to embark, prices recovered. The number of Chinese now on the Rand is 48,000: the highest figure ever stated by the big houses as necessary is 55,000: if therefore the 11,000 Chinese already paid for come in, the mines will have more than they originally asked for. Will Lord Elgin and Mr. Churchill prevent these 11,000 coolies from landing? If they do, they will find themselves at once in collision with the Transvaal Government, which has signed the permits, and with a large and powerful body of business men, who will demand compensation for their loss. Even the Radical Government is hardly likely to start its career with a black eye of this kind, and people see that the whole thing was an electioneering dodge. Still it opens unpleasant vistas of what might happen, and we do not look for any activity in the Kaffir market for a long time, until possibly full responsible government has been granted to the Transvaal. Specialities like Premier Diamonds may go up: the Deferred hang round about 12, and are said to be worth 20. But Kaffirs as a whole are out of fashion, and nothing seems likely to restore them to favour. For the speculator in mining shares, Rhodesia and West Africa offer a more promising field. There are

people who say that Taquah and Abossos are worth £10, and who assert that they will go there. The Christmas passenger traffics have, according to all accounts, been unprecedentedly large, owing to the unusual fineness and mildness of the weather. There may be some renewal of activity in Home Rails, especially in Great Westerns, North-Westerns, and Midland Deferred. But the heavies, like Consols, and foreign securities, and in fact all markets except Americans, really are hanging on the progress of events in Russia. A civil war is quite as wasteful as an international conflict, and far more damaging to the credit of a Government. That the January coupons on Russian bonds will be met is not for a moment doubted.

INSURANCE IN 1905.

INSURANCE managers are reasonable people who have no objection to declaring in general terms how things have been going, and their verdict seems to be that in all branches of insurance this year has produced more satisfactory results than have been reported for some time past. The losses by fire, even in the United States, a country which frequently spoils the profits of British offices, seem to have been well below the average. Workmen's compensation, which in two or three recent years has produced heavy losses for some companies, is reported to have been placed on a satisfactory basis at last. This is due to the absurdities and ambiguities of the original Act being to some extent disposed of by legal decisions. There is some hope that workmen's compensation suits may be fewer in the future than they have been in the past, and so expense will be saved; the insurance companies are also beginning to understand the liabilities which they have to insure against. This was a practical impossibility until the Act had been interpreted.

If what we hear is true, most Life offices will report a larger new business than usual and a favourable rate of mortality. It is said, we hope inaccurately, that many of the new Life policies have been taken by policy-holders who surrendered their assurance in the American companies. As we pointed out when the American insurance scandals began, and as everybody recognises now, there was never any occasion to doubt the solvency of the three great companies in the United States, and in the vast majority of cases the surrender of the policies could only involve loss to the policy-holders. For once the public has taken a good deal of interest in the subject of insurance. The papers have been full of sensational and misleading statements about the American Life offices, and have professed to be shocked at scandals, a few of which were really serious, but most of which were only errors of judgment. All the scandals put together have resulted in but a very small loss to the policy-holders, while the general and permanent characteristics of American Life insurance continually involve their assured members in very substantial losses. The relatively unimportant has been grossly exaggerated, and the really important bad features, to which for years past we have been calling attention, have been altogether ignored. All three of the American companies are talking of reforms, but nothing has yet been done towards introducing the most essential changes, while sundry appointments have been made which, though indicating honesty of management, also suggest inefficiency.

This year has seen the final disappearance of the Hand-in-Hand Insurance Society after a separate existence of more than two centuries; while the all-absorbing Alliance Assurance Company has made plans for the abolition of the old-established County and Westminster Fire Offices, and the Provident Life Office. These amalgamations leave the Fire Insurance Trust supreme and in a position to dictate what terms it chooses for Fire insurance. The last elements of mutuality in Fire insurance, with one or two insignificant exceptions, have been removed, and the Fire insurance of the future will be concerned with earning dividends for shareholders, instead of being managed solely in the interests of policy-holders as was the case in some of the old offices. This readiness on the part

of present-day managers, directors and policy-holders to realise for themselves the value of the goodwill accumulated in past centuries seems to be an indication that insurance is dropping to a somewhat lower level than heretofore. The same tendency to deterioration is shown by the laxity of many companies in regard to the payment of commission. From a great many offices private individuals can obtain commission on their own policies, thereby depriving insurance agents of a legitimate source of income and giving some policy-holders more favourable terms than others. In the State of New York this practice would be called "discrimination between policy-holders", and would subject any companies indulging in it to very heavy penalties.

Two personal changes of some importance have been made. The Old Equitable Society, which is certainly the most interesting, and in many respects the best of existing Life offices, has appointed as its principal officer the most brilliant of the modern school of actuaries, and thus bids fair to continue the leading position in the Life assurance world which the society has occupied since its formation nearly a century and a half ago. The Scottish Widows' Fund, the very type of all that is soundest and most stable in British Life assurance, has lost, by the retirement of Mr. Turnbull, the services of one who managed it with conspicuous ability for a very long period; but in the hands of the new manager the affairs of the society will be conducted as wisely and as successfully as before.

CHRISTMAS MUSIC.

AT first it seems rather curious that the Roman Church should have so little music written specially for Christmas time. She has her full and splendid setting of the Passion. But excepting "Adeste fideles" and a few minor things Christmas appears to have been ignored by her musicians. There is no one great work written solely for the season. Protestant Germany has Bach with his set of six cantatas known as the Christmas oratorio; Protestant England has Handel with his eternal "Messiah"; Romanist Germany, France, Italy and Spain have nothing. Yet Christmas is, I suppose, the greatest feast in the Roman Calendar. It is celebrated with an amount of pomp and circumstance unknown in the Anglican Church. We have no Christmas Eve service lasting from 10 P.M. until midnight, no midnight mass lasting until after two in the morning. In fact, so far as our great Christmas music is concerned, we treat ourselves to it on Boxing day—if we don't feel inclined to see one of the tomfooleries called a pantomime—or some evening in Christmas week, or on New Year's Day. It is on New Year's Day that suburban London crowds to the Albert Hall to hear a selection from the "Messiah" amiably conducted by Sir Frederick Bridge; it is during the preceding week that more or less of the "Messiah" is sung by local choral societies throughout the length and breadth of the land. For the day itself the Church makes no special provision.

And it is precisely for this reason that Protestants the world over have been provided with at least two Christmas masterpieces; it is because the Roman Church has her midnight mass that she has no masterpieces adapted exclusively or mainly to Christmas. I say "mainly" because, if the Christmas oratorio is suitable for no other season, the "Messiah"—in spite of a name connecting Christmas and closely associated with it—or parts of it, can be appropriately sung at many other seasons. It contains numbers for Advent, Passiontide, and Easter. From "But Thou didst not leave His soul in hell" is Easter music; "Who may abide the day of His coming" and "He shall purify" are Advent music; the purely Christmas music consists of only a few numbers. Nevertheless the "Messiah" has become a Christmas institution in this country. The Romanists concentrate themselves on the midnight mass. It is not attended, I fancy, in this country as it is in France, where people turn out for it in their millions; but I, no Catholic, have attended it often here and have seen big churches packed to the last seat by the devout. I scarcely think many go as I go, to see a most picturesque sight and ceremony and to hear

magnificent music, yet last Sunday night over six hundred people were turned away for want of room from Westminster Cathedral. In France—or at least in Paris—every religious man, woman, and child attends—even if they have not seen the inside of a church for the past twelve months—and after the mass the feast is kept up in the streets and cafés and in private houses until morning doth appear. In England this cannot be done: our good puritan and nonconformist friends would have us all indicted for brawling and creating a disturbance on a sacred day (and yet a French churchman is every whit as sincere and devout as your plebeian Dissenter). Yet in England as in France everything centres on the mass; and, as I have said, this is just why the Roman Church has no exclusively Christmas music. The most splendid of all her masses is chosen, and as there are other seasons for which the most splendid of her masses is chosen, the inevitable result is obvious. Indeed, if a mass were especially written for Christmas night it would speedily be put to use for other great feasts. For the great Roman Christmas music we must look amongst the master-works of the Roman Church writers, *passim*.

The Anglican Church—in fact Protestant Churches all the world over—has no analogous function. We have a few special hymns and some of those abominations known as carols, and we have that infamous institution called the Waits. The most tedious and inartistic things I know are carols. They are bad enough with their twenty or more verses of doggerel in a church: when a crowd of gutter boys and girls begin to howl under one's bedroom window at three in the morning they become a horror and a terror. In the north of England I have heard amateur choirs sing hymns sweetly, and though they broke my rest for a while I have turned over and fallen asleep again in perfect happiness, soothed and content. But the dismal caterwauling that goes on in suburban London is enough to make one long for the abolition of Christmas, and then the young beggars have the gross impertinence to ring you out of bed and demand pennies. I heard a carol in S. Paul's Cathedral the other day, and though it was exquisitely sung, and still more exquisitely accompanied on delicious reed stops, the interminable pointless words and the sentimental melodies fairly bored me to suicide. I don't know whether the Germans have carols and I don't know whether Handel resented the infliction, but it is evident that both Bach and Handel felt the need of a great Protestant musical celebration of the feast of Christmas, both missed the grand Christmas mass, and both supplied the need.

Bach in his series of Christmas cantatas confined himself to Christmas, and wrote some of the most beautiful of his music. The opening chorus, "Christians, be joyful," with its drum-beats and the merry skirl of the flutes, then the almost riotous melody, is one of the jolliest things in all music: its nearest parallel is Handel's "Every Valley". The cradle song, "Slumber, beloved", is Bach at his sweetest and most tender; the bass song, "King, all glorious", has a degree of strength astonishing even in Bach; and such a number as the chorale, "Break forth, thou beauteous heavenly light", with its mystery, tenderness and sweetness, ought to be a perpetual lesson to our English Church composers in the way of properly treating Church tunes (only, unluckily, the Anglican has hardly a genuine Church tune to show). The whole "oratorio", as it is called, is full of the loveliest and sweetest things: amongst German Protestant music it stands in much the same position as Mozart's Requiem does in Catholic music, a thing apart and unapproachable. Handel's "Messiah" will be familiar to a few of my readers; but I wonder how many of them realise by how far it is his finest work. Handel, like Bach, had the fatal gift of sincerity. At times it led him to make odd mistakes; but it enabled him to achieve such tremendous things as "And the glory of the Lord shall be revealed", "I know that my Redeemer liveth", and "Worthy is the Lamb"—the last a chorus not to be matched by any save a few of Bach's. It is a pity the Anglican Church has no equivalent to the Roman midnight mass; it is anything but a pity that the want of it

should have driven Bach and Handel, narrow Protestants both, to write two of their most glorious works. In the Church nothing can ever take the place of the mass with its expressive plain-song; but as in our Church there is no room for this we can at any rate turn to the concert-room and find the best part of Protestantism embodied in a noble and beautiful musical shape.

JOHN F. RUNCIMAN.

A LOAD OF WEEDS FROM THE KAILYARD.

SOME ten years ago, I used to read and hear much about a Presbyterian minister who laboured in literature, under the name of Ian Maclaren. I did even, at length, read one of his books—a book of short stories. Through the gibberish in which it was written I discerned dimly one of two things: either Mr. Maclaren's fancy traduced his countrymen, or Scotland was honeycombed with the most insidious forms of maudlin sentimentality, snivelling sanctimoniousness, and cheap funniments. Anxious to settle the matter, I proceeded to consult every Scotchman who came my way. One and all, without shedding one tear, or quoting one text, or cracking one bad joke, they assured me that it was Mr. Maclaren who was to blame, and that if I would be so good as to cross the Tweed I should find it a quite tolerable nation. I believed them, and presently dismissed the subject from my mind. Already the people within my ken had begun to talk and write less about Ian Maclaren, and presently I forgot that such a person existed. It was not till last Wednesday evening, at the S. James' Theatre, that the awful spectre resurged. "A dramatised version, in four acts, of Ian Maclaren's work, entitled 'Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush'." How heavily scented with the decaying vegetation of the kailyard this title is! But is it really the title of a work by Ian Maclaren? There was another Presbyterian minister, Samuel Crockett, who wrote books of a very similar kind. Do I err in my vague impression that "Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush" was his? Let some agile antiquary go to Scotland and burrow among the archives of the period. It were impossible to settle the point simply by reference to the undisputed works of Ian Maclaren. One can say "Shakespeare did not write 'Titus Andronicus'". It is the work of some inferior writer. But where shall one find a writer inferior to Ian Maclaren? And who shall discriminate between the respective twaddle of Ian Maclaren and Samuel Crockett?

Even if the adapters, Messrs. Augustus Thomas and James MacArthur, be proved to have strayed in "attribution", I shall not retract the compliments I now pay them on their pious and skilful fidelity to the author adapted. The dramatis personæ affect me exactly as did the characters in—whichever it was of Ian Maclaren's books that I ventured to read. The adapters have performed their task perfectly. It was not, perhaps, quite so hard a task as falls to most adapters. To bring back from a book to the stage a set of characters that had originated on the stage is easier than to coax on to the stage a set of characters that had stepped out of real life through the author's brain. Ian Maclaren, I suppose, had never entered a playhouse; but it was from that hell, by some curious process, that his characters came to him. They did not remain exactly as they had been. Their extreme sanctimoniousness was an added grace. But their dulness and their maudlin unreality had fallen straight from the "flies". That was the sharp difference between them and the characters in "A Window in Thrums" or "The Little Minister". It is true, doubtless, as most Scotchmen assert, that Mr. Barrie's characters were not true to Scottish nature. But, at least, they were not stagey. They were inventions from within Mr. Barrie's own brain; and very delightful inventions they were, too—presented with a salt humour that saved us from being cloyed by the inherent sentimentality. To transfer safely to the stage these literary creatures of his own brain was an achievement that attested in Mr. Barrie the highest theatrical skill. Less skill was needed to make Ian Maclaren's puppets relapse into their original

sphere. Nevertheless, skill was needed; and I congratulate the adapters on having made the puppets so instantly and so thoroughly at home behind the footlights, and on having preserved in them a full measure of the sanctimoniousness that they had picked up during their excursion.

For the success of the play, perhaps, it would be well had this same sanctimoniousness been stripped away. I presume that there is a terrific outcry from those critics who raised a terrific outcry at the Biblical quotation uttered by Major Barbara. The fact that Ian Maclaren, unlike Mr. Shaw, is a clergyman, can make no difference at all. The point is this: either the theatre is so polluted a place that any reference made therein to Holy Writ must offend all persons of reverent feeling, or it is not so polluted a place. The critics who cried out at Major Barbara's Biblical quotation can have done so only in the belief that the former of these two alternatives is the true one. How much shriller, then, must be their outcry against "Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush"! It is dramatically appropriate that Major Barbara, of the Salvation Army, should quote the text that she does quote. Is it appropriate that a young Scottish nobleman should swear "by God and under His stars" that he and the heroine of the play shall be man and wife? It certainly is not needful. It certainly is dragged in. Doubtless, it is dragged in not for a cheap theatrical effect, but for the purpose of edifying us. But how fearful a blasphemy it must have seemed to the aforesaid critics! I hope they rose and left the building. If they stayed, they exposed themselves to further shocks. Even I, who do not hold the theatre polluted, was shocked by the frequency with which sacred subjects were bandied in the course of "Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush". However fine may have been the motive of the adapters in mentioning these subjects so frequently, the fact remains that their play is a wretched bit of tawdry claptrap, in which any use made of these subjects is bound to offend anyone who combines a sense of reverence with an æsthetic sense.

To justify my description of the play, I must, alas! tell you what the play is about. You may have already guessed that it hinges on a Scotch marriage. The bride is the daughter of a sheep-farmer. There are the usual reasons for not letting the marriage be known; and so, while Lord Hay leaves the district, Flora Campbell remains with her father, and flits in and out of the cottage, wearing a sun-bonnet, but seeming not to be her bright natural self. Her father, Lachlan Campbell, suspects that her gloom is connected with Lord Hay. Just as she entrusts to a postman (chief of many low-comedy characters) a letter for her lover, her father intercepts it. He reads it aloud, and asks her what she means by "our secret". As she refuses to tell, and as he is a stage-father, he jumps to the conclusion that she is a wanton, and, having shouted himself hoarse, turns her out of the cottage, neck and crop. Then comes, of course, the family Bible. Just as Flora's name is going to be struck out, enter a Laddie, who asks "Wut's the mitter?" The mitter having been explained to him, he makes a suggestion to the effect that the father should behave less like a stage-father. This suggestion is rejected. Exit the Laddie. Flora is deleted. The father catches sight of Flora's sun-bonnet, and into that receptacle he pours the tears on which the curtain was bound to fall. Already, I think, he has had something to say about "the Laird's will"; but it is (so far as I know) in the next act, when his hair has turned white through grief, and when "the Laird has laid his naem i' the dust", that he is at his strongest in Biblical references. He meets two children in a wood, and beckons to them. Rather reluctantly, they come; and he, folding them in his arms, and turning up his eyes, quotes a text which I will leave you to guess: if I wrote it down here, I should feel as uncomfortable as I felt in hearing the actor mouth it. He then proceeds to repeat the story of the ewe-lamb. I have said that it is "so far as I know" in this act that he is most Biblical. But I dare say he is even more Biblical in the last act, for which, partly because I was bored, and partly because I was disgusted, I did not stay. What becomes of him finally

I do not know. I conjecture that he dies in sight of the audience. Ian Maclaren, as I well remember from that book of stories, had a large and varied assortment of death-beds, with moon-beam or sun-beam fittings as required.

MAX BEERBOHM.

WOODS AND WEALTH.*

FORESTRY and the necessity for a proper cultivation of the science seem to impress themselves on the public year by year. During the last decade books on forestry have in rapid succession followed each other. Three years ago a departmental committee was appointed which issued a lengthy but somewhat weak report, emphasising those defects in our woodland management that previous committees had already noticed but offering no very important suggestions for their remedy. Only last year a lecture was delivered on forestry at Carpenters' Hall by one of the greatest experts and he revealed a deplorable state of affairs as to our timber supply present and future which is still further enlarged upon by Dr. Nisbet in this work. Better excuse for its publication could hardly be found than is contained in the following paragraph:

"Our average imports of hewn and split timber for the three years 1890 to 1892 amounted to 7,083,388 loads valued at £15,357,119 or 43s. per load. By 1900 they had increased to 9,899,142 loads valued at £25,870,934 or 52s. 3d. per load. . . . Of the total imports of £25,378,000 for timber and other tree products in 1899 we spent about £18,000,000 on coniferous wood alone, which could easily and profitably be grown at home. And these imports have increased of late years. The two great sources of supply of coniferous wood are the Baltic countries and Canada, and the demands of industrial countries especially of Germany in case of the first named, and of the United States in the second will absorb a very large proportion of their available surplus. Canada uses about £16,000,000 worth of timber per annum, the value of the wood products exported being £5,000,000 to £6,000,000. The United States cannot meet its own requirements of timber, and . . . must make very heavy demands on the Canadian supply in future. These circumstances render a rise in the price of timber certain, and the days of cheap timber in Great Britain are almost at an end."

These are no new facts or figures. The warnings of the danger coming upon us have been neither few nor feebly put forward. Perhaps the paper of Dr. Schlich, so well known as an able and a practical forester, in the "Journal of the Society of Arts" (March 1901) entitled "The Outlook of the World's Timber Supply" will be found as exhaustive as any.

From these facts Dr. Nisbet draws the conclusion—one so obvious that none of his readers is likely to differ from it—that "in the economic interests of Britain, the formation of plantations of pines and firs is desirable on the most extensive scale that seems feasible and profitable". But even the "formation of plantations" is not always required in order to relieve the drain on our national exchequer for the provision of coniferous timber. True it is that visitors to Speyside and to many other parts of Scotland must have admired the fine forests of Scots firs being formed there, in many cases by natural regeneration from the parent trees, without the planting of a single seedling, and that too with a success often lacking in planted woods. As to the quality of the mature timber no one who has visited Scandinavian forests and seen the giant logs of Scots fir timber drifting down the rivers to the sea will call that in question. Of the Scots fir Dr. Nisbet says "with the exception of the larch . . . and the Douglas fir it is on the whole the best wood yielded by any conifer in Britain".

But there is no need for the Londoner who may have given the serious consideration which it merits to this timber problem to travel up to Strathspey in order to consider it on the spot. Far nearer home he will find Nature herself labouring with prodigal hand to elucidate it on the most favourable terms to the British nation.

* "The Forester." By Dr. J. Nisbet. 2 vols. London: Blackwood. 1905. 42s.

If he will travel from London, say, to Weymouth (and more than one other route might be selected) he will find on either side of the line thousands of acres of barren heath over which the Scots fir is gradually spreading itself—here it is a dense wood of varied height and irregular outline—there it is only a mass of seedlings barely showing through the heather and gorse and only asserting its presence by the tenderer shade of green that catches the eye. To most spectators this invasion, richly green in hue, beautiful in outline as it breaks the stretch of monotonous sandy heath, is a thing of marvellous attraction, and we may well have grateful hearts when to this aspect of beauty is added the thought that here, unsought by man, is Nature seeking to assist us in our coming need and to avert from us the calamity that is impending, as the forests in distant lands recede further and further from the sea and timber becomes more and more costly to import to our shores.

In the face of all this it is wonderful to read how in the New Forest—our greatest national forest—the possession of all others that might be looked to to stave off a possible timber famine—the commoners and local residents have recently, by meetings and petitions, endeavoured to put pressure on the Commissioners of Woods and Forests to efface, by fire, axe, or any other means, this effort of Nature to meet our future requirements and to clothe with fir a considerable portion of the 45,000 acres of absolutely barren waste lying within the verges of that great forest. The plea put forward is that the growth of fir imperils the value of the pasturage—if any there be—on these barren heaths. If indeed there be any ground for such a complaint in the immediate present, it needs but a little education in forestry and a visit to one or two of the German forests to prove that the one royal road to the improvement of pasturage and soil on such poor land is by the growth of successive crops of timber—first of course the fir—for nothing else will grow. After one or two crops of fir the land will be sufficiently enriched to produce a crop of hard wood with the fertilising humus from its foliage, and once the soil is made good enough to grow hard wood, it follows that the grass and pasturage are tenfold improved from that which failed to contend with the heather, in the days when the Scots fir could only struggle for existence.

The history of the Scots pine in England is interesting. "Fossil remains show that it was at one time indigenous to the South of England where it died out, and was introduced in 1776 into Hampshire". This is the date of the introduction of this tree into the New Forest and that district, which had its origin in the recommendations of a departmental committee appointed to investigate into the suitability of the Royal Forests for the growth of pines for providing "top-masts and bowsprits" for the Royal Navy. Probably the noble pines at Bramshill in the north of the county are of older date and others no doubt existed as ornamental timber. It took nearly one hundred years after this reintroduction for the Scots fir to re-establish itself in the country from which it had died out so many centuries before, but its rapid increase in these days shows how rich a field for the growth of the very timber that we are most likely to stand in need of lies in these bare heaths that have for so long made no return worth mentioning to their owners.

Our second largest forest—Dean—has a much better record to show. That it has always been capable of growing fine timber is shown by the instructions to the Admiral of the Spanish Armada found in a ship wrecked on the coast of Devon "telling him above all to cut down and destroy the Forest of Dean so that the navy of England might be effectually crippled". The character for growing fine oak timber that had thus been earned in the reign of Elizabeth has been maintained to the present day and, out of a total of 24,000 acres, no less than 18,500 have been enclosed at one time or another for the growth of timber and of this area 11,000 acres can at any time be enclosed and dealt with for forestry operations. Better than this, too, a "working plan" was in 1897 drawn up for the whole forest as well as for the estate of Highmeadow Woods adjoining it. Under these schemes the whole future management of the woods has been reduced to

a businesslike system to cover a series of many years to come; "for the proper management of woods and a regular revenue, a working plan is essential".

But perhaps the best use made of the Forest of Dean since the days when the Spaniard cast such envious eyes upon it is that of the institution of a School of Forestry within its boundaries—the only one at present where practice and theory are combined. There young men are taken in for a course of two years' education in practical and in theoretical forestry, and from this or from some kindred source will come the supply of educated foresters for whom so many landowners who desire to bring their woods into a methodically remunerative condition are anxiously searching. So complete and so practical a book as that of Dr. Nisbet will assist these gentlemen very materially, for they will find the whole science of forestry expounded within these two volumes.

Like most foresters Dr. Nisbet takes sides in the ancient feud between woodman and keeper, and inveighs against English methods of game preservation. Where ground game, especially rabbits, are concerned, everybody will be on his side, but surely he carries his denunciations against winged game too far, and has overlooked the fact that in certain parts of this country rents are obtainable for woodlands as coverts for game alone, which bring in a larger return to their owner than he can possibly hope to receive from the better cultivation of the timber. It is exaggerating beyond all reason the damage caused by game to accuse the poor ptarmigan of descending from his mountain fastnesses in order to destroy young Scots fir by picking out the buds of the leading shoots. Nor could the charge be laid even against the common grouse, except perhaps in isolated instances and under extreme pressure from hunger. In fact the chapter on the birds destructive to forestry is one of the least happy efforts throughout the book, and must be taken cum grano salis. By way of set-off that on injurious insects is exceedingly complete and well written. As a whole the book is a sound practical treatise such as the English country gentleman, his agent, and his forester may refer to with both pleasure and profit, and without the fear that if he follows its directions he will be handing himself and his woods over to continental and scientific forestry. This is often conducted on rules and calculations which he has left school too long to understand with facility, while he has on the other hand practical experience enough to make him distrust them as unsuitable for his purposes and in his climate. Says Dr. Nisbet "the forestry that would be too scientific must often fail to be practical". Yet without science and method no system of forest management can succeed. The old "rule of thumb" notions of control must be abandoned for something more worthy of modern thought, but the common sense and practical experience that underlay those crude methods can judiciously be preserved and interwoven with newer and more elaborate systems, and by this combination can be achieved a sound, practical, and remunerative system of British forestry.

A DILETTANTE OF LETTERS.

ROGERS was not a poet, but he was an unaffected and pleasantly old-fashioned writer of verse; and as he was rich, and kind-hearted, and sharp-tongued, he lived to be a very old man without losing a kind of unofficial leadership of the poetry of his period, though for long, as Byron said, "retired upon half-pay". It was Byron who gave him the most thorough praise he got, putting him next to Scott, and thus only just below the apex of his "triangular Gradus ad Parnassum", in which Moore and Campbell came third, and Southey, Wordsworth, and Coleridge just above the indistinguishable "many". And when Byron set him there ("more as the last of the best school") he professed to have "ranked the names upon my triangle more upon what I believe popular opinion than any decided opinion of my own". This was merely a way of trying to add weight to what was really his own decided opinion; for he returns to Rogers again and again, in his letters and controversial writings, ranking him with Goldsmith and Campbell as "the most

successful" of the disciples of Pope, and with Crabbe as the only poet of the day who was not "in the wrong", "upon a wrong revolutionary poetical system". "And thou, melodious Rogers!" he had invoked him, in the "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers", bidding him "restore Apollo to his vacant throne". Fifty years afterwards Rogers is still a notable person to Elizabeth Barrett, who, "not a devout admirer of 'The Pleasures of Memory', does admire this perpetual youth and energy" of the poet of eighty-one whose bank has been robbed of £40,000, and who "says witty things on his own griefs". And, in 1850, we find Ruskin still valuing him as a poet and inspirer, and writing to him from Venice: "Whenever I found myself getting utterly hard and indifferent, I used to read over a little bit of the 'Venice' in your 'Italy', and it put me always into the right tone of thought again." The old man to whom he was writing had seen Haydn play at a concert in a tie-wig, with a sword by his side, and had met more than one person who remembered Mr. Alexander Pope.

Rogers was born in 1763, before any of those who may be properly called his contemporaries among the poets of the nineteenth century, except Blake and Crabbe, and he died in 1855, after all of them but Landor and Leigh Hunt. He was famous in 1793 as the writer of "The Pleasures of Memory", the most popular poem which had appeared since Cowper's "Task", seven years earlier; more popular indeed than that poem had ever been. Nearly twenty years afterwards, the "Edinburgh Review", in not too amiable an article, could say of it that it was "to be found in all libraries and in most parlour windows". Rogers seemed, to the critics of that time, by his "correctness of thought, delicacy of sentiment, variety of imagery, and harmony of versification", to be the legitimate "child of Goldsmith". Burns was still alive, and he, with Blake and Crabbe, had already published the poems which were the real heralds of the new poetry; but neither Burns nor Crabbe was universally known, and Blake was wholly unknown. Rogers seemed to his contemporaries more "classical", more in the tradition, than Cowper; his ease and finish made Hayley and the Della Cruscans impossible. He was accepted instantly, as Byron was to accept him later, at least in theory, as the chief adherent to "the Christianity of English Poetry, the poetry of Pope".

We can read worse things now, but we cannot read "The Pleasures of Memory". It is not poetry, and there is nothing in its smooth commonplaces to make up for its not being poetry, as, to some extent, there certainly is in the later, never quite so popular, "Italy". But, before "Italy", there had been "An Epistle to a Friend", which begins to be more personal and thus more interesting; "The Voyage of Columbus" which suggested to Byron "the idea of writing a poem in fragments", "The Giaour", dedicated to Rogers; and "Jacqueline", which Byron found "all grace, and softness, and poetry", and which was actually published under the same covers with "Lara". We can read none of these now, but we can read the "Italy", almost as if it were prose, but with no distaste at its being in verse.

"The Pleasures of Memory" fitted the fashion of its day, a fashion which was even then passing; but it could not outlast that fashion, as the work of many poets has done, because it had no energy of life or imagination within it. It was sincere, and we can respect it for its sincerity; but it was the work of one who had trained himself up to be a poet as he trained himself up to appreciate and collect beautiful things, and to acquire worldly wisdom by "always listening to the conversation of older persons". His nephew tells us that "he thought every man ought to have a pursuit, such as the writing of a book, which gave an interest to life such as was not known without it". His poetry was simply the most serious interest in life of a dilettante who would have lacked only an interest in life without it. "On all subjects of taste", said Byron, "his delicacy of expression is as pure as his poetry".

And so it is in the "Italy" that he came nearest to writing anything of value, for that pleasant road-book to Italy is done with a real personal gusto, and in a

blank verse which, as Lamb said, "gallops like a traveller, as it should do", and is a form which we can read to-day more easily than those couplets out of which Rogers confesses that he got with so much difficulty. Wordsworth found in it "rather too strong a leaning to the pithy and concise"; but Rogers does not aim appreciably higher than prose, and is wise in not doing so. "Happy should I be", he says, "if by an intermixture of verse and prose, of prose illustrating the verse and verse embellishing the prose, I could furnish my countrymen on their travels with a pocket-companion". Was not an aim so humble more than attained when Ruskin, in his "Præterita", confessed that it was the birthday gift, at the age of thirteen, of Rogers' "Italy" that "determined the main tenor of his life"?

To go to Italy was for Rogers to make a pilgrimage to his Holy Land. In his epilogue he says:

"Nature denied him much,
But gave him at his birth what most he values;
A passionate love for music, sculpture, painting,
For poetry, the language of the gods,
For all things here, or grand or beautiful."

It is the idolater of art who writes to a friend from Venice: "Oh, if you knew what it was to look upon a lake which Virgil has mentioned, and Catullus has sailed upon, to see a house in which Petrarch has lived, and to stand upon Titian's grave as I have done, you would instantly pack up and join me." His poem is the warm direct record of this enthusiasm; only, the verse is less warm than the prose, the sentiment cools a little in its passage into verse, the sharp details of the journal are softened, generalised, lose much of their really poetical substance. When Byron went on the grand tour, much less impressed really than Rogers by what he saw, he transfigured all these things in some atmosphere of his own, and "Childe Harold" is a bad guide-book, and not always an honest or intelligent comment of the observer, but at least a very startling and personal poem. Rogers will put into his notes or prose interludes such a vigorous utterance as this: "When a despot lays his hand on a free city, how soon must he make the discovery of the rustic, who bought Punch of the puppet-show man, and complained that he would not speak"! Turning to the verse, you find vaguer epithets or a fainter discourse, as in the inexpressive lines which call forth that beautiful and significant note (which Rogers says he wrote ten times over before he was satisfied with it) on the Dominican at Padua, who, looking on his companions at the refectory table and then at the Last Supper fading off the painted wall, was "sometimes inclined to think that we, and not they, are the shadows". Had he but realised it, it is as a prose-writer that Rogers might have lived.

Rogers was a man of letters, and holds a position in the history of letters in England, almost apart from the actual quality of his work. This "grim old dilettante, full of sardonic sense", as Carlyle called him, was the typical man of taste of his time: "his god was harmony" Mrs. Norton said of him. His house was as carefully studied as his poems, and as elaborately decorated; the Giorgione "Knight in Armour", now in the National Gallery, was one of his pictures. Byron paid Rogers many extravagant compliments, but he was defining him very justly when in "Beppo", he classed him with Scott and Moore as "Men of the world, who know the world like men". He was not a great talker, but he had and deserved a reputation for neat, not always amiable, wit. "They tell me I say ill-natured things", he said to Sir Henry Taylor. "I have a very weak voice; if I did not say ill-natured things no one would hear what I said". He was a benefactor to Wordsworth, to Campbell, to Sheridan, to Moore; a peacemaker among poets; a friend to men of genius and children. It was written of him by one of his guests: "I suppose there is hardly any hero or man of genius of our time, from Nelson or Crabbe downwards, who has not dined at Rogers' table". He loved beauty, and honoured genius, perhaps beyond any man of his time.

ARTHUR SYMONS.

BRIDGE.

IN describing the new game, "Auction Bridge", in last week's article, we omitted to say that a player is not allowed to amend his declaration when he has been over-called by another player. Thus, if A deals and declares diamonds, B passes, and C declares hearts, A is not allowed to alter his declaration and declare No Trumps. In no circumstances can a player make more than one declaration.

There is one point in the new Laws of Bridge which seems to be generally misunderstood. There is a prevalent idea that, if the third player, instead of the eldest hand, asks whether he may play, his partner is thereby precluded from doubling. This is not the case. If the third player doubles before his partner has said "May I play?", it is at the option of the declarer whether the double shall stand or not, and the eldest hand is then precluded from doubling, but the fact of the third player asking whether he may play does not in any way affect the right of the eldest hand to double. The question was thoroughly gone into by the Rules Committee and they decided that, as no information could be given to his partner by the third player asking the question, it was neither necessary nor desirable to inflict any penalty for his so doing.

A new edition of "Hellespont on Bridge" has lately been published. In an appendix to the original work the author propounds the theory that "it is in playing without trumps that a player's skill becomes of paramount importance. On one false step will often depend the winning or losing of the odd trick, or even sometimes of the game". Certainly it will, but does not this apply equally, or even more strongly, to the trump game? The real reason of indifferent players being so fond of declaring No Trumps is that they find the No Trump hands easier to play. It is when there is a suit declaration that the fine points of play present themselves, and it is then that the good player will sometimes convert into a victory what would have been a certain defeat in the hands of his inferior brother. Defending a No Trump game gives enormous opportunities for skill and combination, more so than any other phase of the game, but not so the play of the two hands by the dealer. Occasionally one sees a very intricate No Trump hand, but the general run of them are cut and dried, and the result of the game depends far more upon the tactics of the defenders than upon those of the dealer in most No Trump hands.

Having propounded this theory, "Hellespont" proceeds to give instances in illustration of it, and the first hand on his list is the following:—

Spades—Ace, king, queen, knave, 4, 3, 2.
Hearts—10.
Clubs—6, 5.
Diamonds—9, 8, 7.

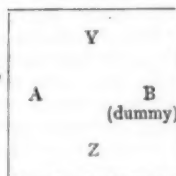
This is a hand on which he says that a strong player should declare No Trumps, but that "his weaker brother will do better to leave it". To begin with, the declaration of No Trumps on this hand is not bridge at all, it is gambling pure and simple, like tossing for shillings, and to give this as an instance of a No Trump hand is to reduce bridge to the level of baccarat, or blind hookey, or any other purely gambling game, and to eliminate from it any element of skill. Apart from this consideration, what possible opening for skill can there be in the play of the above hand? It is a hand, if ever there was one, which the veriest neophyte could play every whit as well as the most learned professor of the game. The result entirely depends upon whether the dummy hand can win a trick—presuming that he has a spade to lead, which is by no means a certainty—and this again will depend, not in any way on the play of the dealer, but upon the placing of the cards, and upon the methods employed by the opponents. Any child of twelve years old, provided that he knew the value of the cards, could play it absolutely as well as "Hellespont" himself, yet this he quotes as his first instance of a hand in which "skill becomes of paramount importance". Really, it is wonderful!

We give below a very curious hand which recently occurred in actual play, and which really does offer an

opportunity for the exercise of skill on the part of the dealer. It is a good instance of a hand on which a first-class player would, in all probability, win the game, while an indifferent player would be quite certain to fail to do so.

Spades—10.

Hearts—Ace, 10, 4.
Diamonds—Ace, king, queen, knave, 3, 2.
Clubs—9, 8, 3.
Spades—Queen.



Hearts—6.
Diamonds—Nil.
Clubs—Ace, 5, 3.
Spades—Ace, knave, 9, 8, 7, 6, 4, 3, 2.

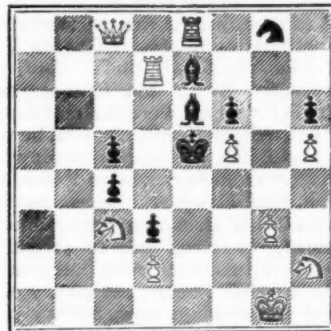
Score love-all. A dealt and declared diamonds. Y led the 10 of spades. How should A play the two hands so as to take the best chance of winning the game?

We do not offer problems for competition in this column, but we invite our readers to study this hand, not forgetting the lead of the 10 of spades, and to decide for themselves how they would have proceeded in A's place. In next week's article we will publish our own views as to the best way to play the hand.

CHESS.

PROBLEM 63. By J. JESPERSON.

Black, 9 pieces.



White, 10 pieces.

White to mate in two moves.

PROBLEM 64. By S. LOYD.—White (5 pieces): K—QKt2, Q—Q6, Kt—Q1, P—QKt4, P—QR5. Black (4 pieces): K—QB5, R—QB4, P—QB3, P—QR3. White to mate in three moves.

Solutions to above will be duly acknowledged.

KEY TO PROBLEM 61: 1. B—B5. If . . . K×Kt, 2. P—Kt7. 1. . . . P×P, 2. B—B8 ch, &c.

We repeat PROBLEM 62.—White (3 pieces): K—KR8, Q—KKt1, P—KKt7. Black (2 pieces): K—KR3, Q—KB3. White to win. The solution is as follows: 1. Q—Kt4. If . . . Q—R8 (best), 2. Q—R3 ch, K—Kt3; 3. Q—Kt2 ch, K—B4; 4. Q—B2 ch, K—K5; 5. K—R7, Q—R8 ch; 6. K—Kt6, &c. Or 3. . . . K—R3; 4. Q—R2 ch, K moves; 5. Q—Kt1 ch, Q×Q; 6. P—Kt8=Q ch and wins. If 3. . . . K—B2; 4. Q—R2 ch. The main idea being to give up the queen and then win black's with the promoted pawn.

At this time of the year everybody is more or less retrospective. Looking back at these articles it seems necessary to point out that now and again something has been left to the imagination of the reader. It is, of course, impossible to overload every proposition, assertion, or suggestion with qualifications and details. For instance, a good deal has been said about the superiority of the modern school. It does not follow, however, when this is conceded, that modern players are superior, only that their weapons are more effective than those used in days gone by. It was Ruskin who startled the world with a denunciation of modern chess

tactics only to demonstrate that eminence as a critic in one walk of life was no guarantee against superficiality in another. There are always a lot of people who hanker after the flesh pots of Egypt, after things that have passed away. Living in the past, oblivious of the present; old talkers and walkers, old preachers and teachers are to them unsurpassed. The old style certainly was more picturesque but it was less sensitive and subtle, less amenable to logic and truth. A return to it is as impossible as to the stage coach or the rushlight. To those chess-players who are also students of the game and anxious to improve it is very necessary that they should be familiar with the old style of chess. To use a well-known simile the old to the new is as a bludgeon to a rapier, and on occasion one is more useful than the other.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE JEW IN RUSSIA.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

London, E., 25 December, 1905.

SIR,—Your contributor, Mr. Alexander Kinloch, has achieved the impossible. What Burke in his wisdom would not undertake he has accomplished. With a few strokes of the pen he has indicted a whole nation and heaped upon its head the entire blame of the tragedy now being enacted in the Empire of the Tsars. After centuries of oppression, of wrongs suffered patiently, of misgovernment by a corrupt oligarchy, of maladministration by a gang of officials the worst the world has ever seen, of malversation of the public revenue by the Grand Ducal clique, Russia "has stamped her strong foot and said she would be free". Yet Mr. Kinloch who claims to have had the benefit "of a very long residence in the country" sees nothing in all this but the misdeeds of the Jew.

Is it the Jew who instigated the majority of the Zemstvo Congress to demand a Constituent Assembly based on Universal Suffrage with equal rights for all nationalities and religions? Is it the Jew who has inspired the Peasants' Union to clamour for the distribution of the Crown lands? Is it the Jew who impels the workers of S. Petersburg and Moscow to strike for an eight hours' day, or the postal and telegraph employés to struggle for some slight amelioration of their hard lot?

Surely Mr. Kinloch cannot be in earnest; it would flatter the Jew too much—and I feel confident that he certainly has no such intention—to attribute to his puny efforts at alleviating his own miserable condition the revolt of the whole nation against its taskmasters. If Mr. Kinloch really possessed that first-hand knowledge to which he lays claim it would have been impossible for him to write as he has done. For then he would have known that outside the Jewish Pale there are but a quarter of a million Jews, and that the remainder of the five millions (not six as Mr. Kinloch asserts—vide the latest Russian census) are huddled together in the overcrowded cities of the above-mentioned Pale. That a quarter of a million people scattered over such a vast area as Russia, even minus the Pale, should have caused the "universal resentment and confusion" would certainly seem incredible to every thoughtful person except Mr. Kinloch. Nor must it be forgotten that this small minority contains the larger number of the "superior, intellectual and cultured portion of the Jews in Russia" to whose civic virtues even Mr. Kinloch is compelled to pay a grudging tribute.

The heaviest blows your contributor has, however, reserved for the University Jew student, "the special bête noire of the Government", the "fons et origo" of the "street murders, the plundering and devastation, which have darkened the pages of Russian national life for the past month or two". Had Mr. Kinloch but reflected a little he must have seen how utterly ridiculous such a statement is. Had he possessed any information beyond the tittle-tattle and gossip collected in the anti-Semitic salons of the two capitals he must have known that since 1887 the number of Jewish

students admitted to the Universities has been limited to three per cent. of the Christian students in the educational institutions of S. Petersburg and Moscow, five per cent. in the other provinces of the Empire, and ten per cent. in the Pale. Does Mr. Kinloch seriously believe that such a small fraction of the academic population, however profoundly "steeped in Western democratic, doctrinaire literature" it may be, could have converted the Universities into hotbeds of revolution, and sent the most conservative and phlegmatic element in a nation, the professorial class, into the streets to preach revolutionary doctrines to an ignorant peasantry? Mr. Kinloch's faith in his own unsubstantiated assertions is nothing short of marvellous.

The foregoing are but a few of the inaccuracies into which your correspondent's passion has led him. Now let me touch upon some of his remaining "facts". According to Mr. Kinloch the Jew has migrated into the villages exploiting "all the movable property that the peasant has to dispose of to enable him to meet his redemption taxes". Is he not aware that since the "May Laws of 1882" Jews have been driven from the villages, that since 1864 they have been forbidden to buy or lease land in the provinces presided over by the Governors-General of Kieff and Wilna? Have all the expulsions that have since then driven hundreds of thousands of homeless Jews across the seas to seek refuge in the freer, more hospitable atmosphere of the great Western Republic been a mere figment of the imagination, a pure invention of the journalists, publicists, and politicians of Europe and America? What a curious comment upon the restrictionist legislation of the United States and this country.

Yet another "fact". In Mr. Kinloch's view all Jews are nothing but money-lenders, usurers, middlemen, sweaters, and grasping monopolists. The recent census returns, however, afford ample testimony to the contrary. These returns, the most complete and accurate Russia has hitherto produced, were prepared under the direction of M. Nicholas Troinitzky, a statistician of European fame, and can certainly be relied upon. From them we learn that the Jewish population contains a large number, a disproportionate number in fact, of artisans, amounting in some towns, such as Radom, Slonim, Vinnitsa, &c., from 33 to 42 per cent. of the total Jewish population. If Mr. Kinloch will do me the honour to read a short article of mine in the January number of the "Economic Journal" he will find that Jews are engaged in such useful and legitimate trades as tailoring, shoe-making, joinery, baking, meat purveying and slaughtering, turning, smiths' and general mechanics' work. These facts are incontrovertible and are supported by a host of writers on Russia, including Major Sir W. Evans-Gordon in his book "The Alien Immigrant", whom even Mr. Kinloch could not accuse of excessive partiality to the Jews.

In his anxiety to blacken the Jew in the eyes of the world, to divert the sympathy which his wretchedness might have otherwise aroused in the hearts of the charitably disposed and liberal minded at this season of "Peace on earth and goodwill towards men", when Christendom is acclaiming the Birth of a Jew, Mr. Kinloch stops short of nothing. In the face of the messages of generations of correspondents of the "Times", of Dr. Dillon of the "Daily Telegraph", and countless other correspondents and eye-witnesses who have proved to the hilt the blood-guiltiness of Russian officialdom and soldiery the writer coolly talks of "unfounded accusations" and "the greatly maligned Grand Dukes". To him the latter are the highest types of a divinely appointed aristocracy who have fallen upon evil days, meekly bearing "the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune", that a dull, undiscerning world has conspired to hurl at them. The contemplation of their sufferings, their humility, their conspicuous honesty, their oppression by "the prolific and ubiquitous Jew", their pitiful lamentation over the sad fate that has befallen their beloved country, their scrupulous morality, their superhuman efforts to save Russia from falling into the abyss is indeed a sorrowful picture that will not fail to wring a tear even from a heart of adamant and "move the stones of Rome to rise and mutiny".

Yours sincerely,

A. WEINER.

GERMANY AND THE PEACE OF EUROPE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Eisenach, 19 December, 1905.

SIR,—“Constant Reader” clearly has not understood my last letter. Your version of the “myth of 1875” does not implicate either the nation, or the Emperor or Bismarck in the alleged plot. In this country the Emperor and the Imperial Chancellor constitute the government as far as foreign affairs are concerned. Consequently it was not a matter of assertion, but an irresistible conclusion and a patent truth, when I said that “your own showing does not at all impair Mr. Karl Blind’s statement that ‘to uphold peaceful relations with France has been the constant aim of the German nation and Government’”.

So much for the version in question, assuming it to be true. But I am truly astonished that so critical a mind as yours, Sir, should consider the story worth serious credit. To everyone in this country the idea of Bismarck slyly getting up Prince Gortchakoff (of all men!) and Queen Victoria to pose as the protectors of France, for the purpose of defeating the plot of a handful of military men in Berlin, seems so utterly grotesque that the story carries its own refutation. Is the English sense of humour on the wane? The “Protector part of Gortchakoff in 1875” has to be accounted for in a more plausible way, at least for those who do not hold that the more underhand and foolish and suicidal a proceeding was the more likely was it to be adopted by the maker of the German Empire. Just one word more to “Constant Reader” who gratuitously insinuates that it is only from a “present desire” and only “at this time” that I am “in favour of better relations between Germany and Great Britain”. I can assure him that it has been my credo for over forty years that relations of mutual trust ought to exist between our countries. That faith stood even the strain of the Transvaal war, although I utterly condemned the British policy leading up to it. I have before me the copy of an exposé I addressed to a prominent German statesman on the thesis that “any fundamental shifting of the distribution of power in the Mediterranean or in Asia to the detriment of Great Britain ought to find Germany alongside of Great Britain as her ally”. That paper was dated 5 February, 1900. Such was my notion of the community of interests when England was passing through her darkest crisis in modern times. I saw our future common enemy in the United States. I do so still and in that respect there is not, perhaps, much difference of opinion between you, Sir, and

Yours very truly,

C. WICHMANN.

NELSON’S AMAZING MODERNNESS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

5 Oak Grove, Cricklewood,

25 December, 1905.

SIR,—Nelson desired a death-announcement should be “sent by telegraph to the Admiralty” you quote as one of the modernnesses in your review of Mr. Sladen’s “Nelson Letters” (23 December). The “telegraphs” in question, on the roof of the Admiralty, a real sky-sign, was one of the sights of London in my childhood, say, in the thirties. When at work, its signalling, by poles, could be gaped at. Is the modernness absolute, quite?

Yours very faithfully,

JENNETT HUMPHREYS.

THE CASE OF MR. WATT.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—There is a risk that the Christmas holidays followed by the turmoil of a General Election may prevent the case of Mr. Watt from receiving the attention which it deserves, but I think there are strong reasons for apprehending that there has been a miscarriage of

justice largely due to the attitude of the Judge who is the person ordinarily consulted in such cases by the Home Office. I hope Mr. Herbert Gladstone will revert to the old and sound practice of consulting the Attorney-General, which was at all events adopted as recently as the time of Sir William Harcourt. I do not say that the Judge was prejudiced or meant to be unfair, but in the whole of his charge (at least in the reports which I have seen) he did not once insist on the all-important question of reasonable doubt; and if Watt had declined to enter the witness-box at all I think the point of reasonable doubt might still have been strongly urged in his favour owing to the character of the witnesses against him. But further, Watt was charged with three criminal offences of the same kind, and the Judge instead of considering the evidence for each offence separately (and I can scarcely understand how the prisoner could have been convicted on all the counts if this had been done) not merely took them all together but treated the evidence of each witness as corroborating that of the others. Each alleged attempt rested on its own evidence and on that alone. Let us suppose that Watt had been already convicted of two attempts to induce persons to murder his wife. Proof of these convictions could not have been given in evidence against him on a trial for the third.

In the cases of Beck, Edalji and many others there was no doubt that the offences had been committed. The only question was who was the culprit. But in the case of Watt the fact that there was any offence had to be proved by the prosecutors. No attempt was ever made on the life of Mrs. Watt or of Sir Reginald Beauchamp. The allegation was that Mr. Watt applied to several persons to induce them to commit the offence—that all these persons apparently fell in with the suggestion and got money from Mr. Watt (for which no cheques or letters were produced) on the pretence that they would carry out his wishes—that none of them ever meant to carry them out or took any step to do so—and that they all ultimately resolved in the interests of justice to reveal what they knew, though some of them had waited for a considerable time before doing so and apparently only resolved to give the information when they found that they could extract no more milk from the cow. The Judge is probably right in saying that if a man wished to induce another to commit murder he would select a man of bad character to make this proposal to. But does this fact make the latter’s allegation that A offered him money to kill B more credible than it would otherwise be? His antecedents might have made the prisoner think it probable that he would commit murder for a reward; but they render it equally probable that he would make a false charge against anyone when he thought it for his own interest to do so. What value is to be attached to his evidence? If he is better than his reputation, how is the jury to know it? And is it safe to send any man to penal servitude on such testimony?

Take any one of the charges separately and can it be said to have been conclusively proved? And how does shaky evidence of a second charge corroborate shaky evidence of the first? There seems to me to be a reasonable doubt as to whether anybody asked anybody to kill either Mrs. Watt or Sir Reginald Beauchamp. The prisoner had indeed hard luck if after trying to induce several men of bad character to commit murder he found them all equally willing to take his money, to promise compliance, to refuse to commit the crime, and to denounce him to the authorities.

As to the man Lightfoot there seems to be little doubt that if he at first perjured himself in order to save Watt he afterwards perjured himself with the opposite object. His conduct and his motives require further investigation. If he repented of his first perjury to such an extent as voluntarily to confess it and plead guilty to the charge, why should he perjure himself a second time on the opposite side as the Judge held that he did? He played his cards badly but I think he played with an object that has not yet been brought to light. We shall probably have another declaration from him before long if the officials do not suppress it.

Yours,

B. L.

THE UNEMPLOYED.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Kolhapur, India, 4 December, 1905.

SIR,—In times of scarcity or famine the Government of India finds employment on subsistence wages for hundreds of thousands of those in need. Why cannot the comparatively small number of unemployed in the United Kingdom be similarly dealt with?

Yours faithfully, X.

"SIMILARITIES IN DIALECT."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Bourne, 26 December, 1905.

SIR,—I am inclined to think that Mr. Child has taken too literally the anecdote about the Scotch gillie which appeared in your Notes of the 2nd inst. Undoubtedly there are many Norwegian and Scotch words having a common root, differentiated only slightly in the course of time, yet the respective dialects or languages have not obtained their entire vocabularies from common sources. This fact, together with constant differentiation in detail, makes it incredible that conversation should be possible between the peasants of the two countries. Your gillie would instantly recognise certain nouns, and see in the Norwegian brød, öl, fisk, mælk, his Scotch bread, ale, fish, milk; or in such common objects as hus, kirke, bec, foss, his own house, kirk, beck, force (or waterfall); but after "his simple wants" had been supplied, I fear the conversation would flag.

Armed with a smattering of their language picked up during the greater part of last June spent in the heart of Norway, I found the utmost difficulty in making myself understood by a party of emigrants who crossed in the same boat; and this leads me to think that the conversation of Mr. Child's friend, travelling to Canada, was assisted much more by the compulsory English taught in the Scandinavian Folk Scules than, by "similarities in dialect".

Yours faithfully,
ALBERT E. K. WHERRY.

EDUCATION IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

20 December, 1905.

SIR,—The English traveller in the United States who visits only the large cities is apt to observe the existence of some excellent schools, and to form a very erroneous impression of the ordinary level of education in America. In the country towns and even in the smaller universities the teaching of English is particularly faulty. Not only students but teachers and professors use such flowers of language as "I didn't have any money to give him", and "We do considerable reading here times".

I was staying in an American house recently with a girl who was about to "graduate" from a famous provincial high school and enter a still more famous woman's college. She used dozens of the grammatical errors associated in my mind with memories of the lowest class of English servants and shopmen. Not long ago I called, in a large American town, on the invalid sister of a headmistress. Everything in the room was in exquisite taste. The etchings on the walls, and the books in pretty shelves, were equally well selected. The invalid had read widely, and showed both knowledge and discrimination in talking about political and social matters. Yet she made mistakes in grammar that an English village Church-schoolmistress would be surprised to hear made by any pupil who had been a year under instruction in the upper classes of her school.

The English village schoolmistress has probably learned English from a training-college teacher who, if not a gentlewoman herself, knows how to speak and write the English of educated persons. The American teacher, if not the ordinary American professor, would fiercely resent any suggestion that the parental farm or cottage was not a temple of English undefiled, and no American dare be "un-American" enough to offer it. The average quality of spoken and written English throughout the States has steadily deteriorated since 1865.

I am, Sir, yours &c.

AN OLD FRIEND OF NEW ENGLAND.

REVIEWS.

POETRY AS POLITICS.

"A History of English Poetry." Vol. III. By W. J. Courthope. London: Macmillan. 1905. 10s. net.

IT is difficult, in reading the latest volume of Mr. Courthope's "History of English Poetry", not to be reminded of a statement in the preface to Southey's "Specimens of the Later English Poets". "Many worthless versifiers", he says, "are admitted among the English Poets, by the courtesy of criticism: my business was to collect specimens as for a hortus siccus, not to cull flowers as for an anthology. . . . The taste of the public may better be estimated from indifferent Poets than from good ones; because the former write for their contemporaries, the latter for posterity". Is it on such a principle that Mr. Courthope gives seven pages to what he himself calls "the grotesque attempts at epic poetry and the didactic verse" of Blackmore, and half a page to Christopher Smart, though he admits that the "Song to David" "is constructed on lines at once sane and magnificent", and that Blackmore's work "deserves attention, not so much in itself as in its illustration of the temper of the age included between the Revolution of 1688 and the Treaty of Utrecht"? Exactly the same number of pages are given to Johnson and to Chatterton, and, while we are told of Chatterton that "he was urged on by a boundless ambition, but his actual performances show no sign of a definite purpose in art", we are told that "the chief characteristic of Johnson's ethical poetry is the depth of feeling with which he illustrates universal truths by individual examples". In other words, here is a historian of poetry who is so fettered by his conception of poetry as history, that he is unable to see poetry as poetry (as in the case of Chatterton and Johnson) and that he is willing to give a mere mention to a poet whom he admits to be genuine and a long discussion to a writer of verse whom he nowhere professes to take for a poet.

The fact is, Mr. Courthope, while he imagines that he is studying poetry, is really studying politics. "If these political results be considered", he says in his opening chapter, "much light will be thrown on the resemblances and differences between English and French poetry in the long evolution of the art as practised in each country". He is for ever dwelling on "changes of government", as if any poet whose poetry was of moment (with only the partial exception of Byron) knew or cared anything about changes of government. "It is of course foreign to the scope of this history to dwell upon the more purely personal side of the lives of the English poets": so he assures us, but why foreign, and why of course? Does he not realise that the sight of a woman or of a cloud has more power over the very pulse of a poet's genius than all the laws of a nation or all the politics of a party?

He might reply that it had not in the case of many of the writers with whom he deals in this volume: with Dr. Garth and his "Dispensary", with Addison and his "Campaign". To this we would reply that such writers demand no more than a passing reference, and are not to be taken as types of English poetry. Mr. Courthope, it is true, finds "The Dispensary" "not very promising for the modern reader; still, there can be no doubt that, in its own day, *The Dispensary* made a mark which entitles it to a permanent place in English poetry". When will historians of poetry learn to confine themselves to what is really poetry, or, if they must chronicle what "made a mark in its own day", chronicle it frankly at its true worth, and admit that no amount of historical significance will make what is bad poetry in 1905 good poetry in 1670? Historians like Mr. Courthope deal with poetry as if it were a fashion. But poetry is a reality, an essence, it is unchanged by any change in fashion; the critic's business is to find it, amongst the miscellaneous verse of an age, and to proclaim it inflexibly for what it is.

The volume before us is a history of English poetry in the eighteenth century, and thus largely a study of Pope and the school of Pope. The poetry of the

eighteenth century is an exception to the whole remaining poetry of England. A single conception of poetry will suffice to harmonise the poets of every other age; only the eighteenth century claims to be judged by itself. Here and there, as in Collins, a poet is to be distinguished whose best works can be recognised by the eternal signs of poetry. But for the most part we are expected to put aside all those principles which can be confirmed by the practice of the best poets of the world, and to admit, with Mr. Courthope, in speaking of Pope, that "it is on a false principle of criticism that Warton, and those who think with him, blame his poetry on account of the absence of qualities which they find in other poets". If those qualities which are to be found in other poets, and not in Pope, are precisely the fundamental qualities which constitute poetry, is it not, on the contrary, inexcusable for critics who do not on their part deny these qualities, or even the general supremacy of these qualities, to put them quietly aside for the occasion, and, once the eighteenth century is left behind, take them up again as if nothing had happened?

It is in the account of Chatterton that Mr. Courthope betrays most clearly his inability to distinguish what is essential from what is accidental in poetry. Chatterton is one of the tests of the critic, and Mr. Courthope shows hardly more understanding now than Walpole and Gray and Mason did when their understanding would have saved the life of a great poet. When Mr. Courthope says: "Tested by the truth of things, his poetical structures crumble into dust immediately they are examined" he perhaps means what Mr. Skeat meant when he said: "The poems exhibit a phraseology such as no human ingenuity can translate into fifteenth-century English without completely recasting them." As if this had the slightest connexion with the merit of the "Rowley Poems" as poetry! Chatterton's "masculine persuasive force" is one of the most genuine things in our literature, and is in no degree affected by the mask which it pleased him to put on. It is the mere parody of the historic spirit to say, as Mr. Courthope does, "Had this poet lived in an age of spontaneous inspiration when the stage was flourishing, it may well be that the needs of the public taste would have guided his dramatic and satiric genius into some channel of great poetical expression". Chatterton required no "needs of the public taste" to guide him into a "channel of great poetical expression". He found for himself that "channel of great poetical expression", he wrote not only a considerable body of powerful and unequal work, but certain poems which are almost wholly perfect from every point of view, and which, coming when they did, prove as conclusively as anything in poetry, that the man of genius is not of his age, but above it.

Commenting on Cowper's estimate of Pope, Mr. Courthope assures us that "it is unphilosophical to believe that a single poet can turn the art of poetry into any channel that he will by his own genius: the greatest artists are those who best understood the conflict of tendencies in their own age, and who, though they rise above it into the region of universal truth, are moved by it to reflect in their work its particular form and character". In other words, we are to believe that the cart drives the horse, that the taste of the time makes the genius of the poet. It is the poet who, by his genius, makes the taste of the time. All that "conflicts of tendencies" and the like have to do with the poet is to help him now and again to a convenient form, to suggest to him the lute or the stage, to give him this or that malleable lump of material. He is supremely fortunate if, like Shakespeare, born with a genius for drama, he finds a stage already alive and awaiting him; comparatively unfortunate if, like Goethe, his dramatic genius, lacking a stage for its complete expression, can but create individual works, which, however great, lose their chance of wholly organic development. No great poet ever owed any essential part of his genius to his age; at the most he may have owed to his age the opportunity of an easy achievement. And so we find Pope ("doubtless right", as Mr. Courthope says, "in following the bent of his genius as well as the tendencies of his age") the chief figure in verse of an age which possessed no great

poet; not a poet in the true sense, a born poet, made and modified by the moment into which he was born, but a writer of extraordinary prose capacity and finish, who, if he had lived in another age, and among genuine poets, would have had no more than a place apart, admired for the unique thing which he could do, but not mistaken for a poet of true lineage.

With all these matters of primary importance, the real foundations of any valuable study of poetry, Mr. Courthope has no concern. "My design from the first", he reminds us, "has been, not to furnish an exhaustive list of the English poets as individuals, but rather to describe the general movements of English poetry as an art, illustrating the evolution of national taste". And this, no doubt, he does capably; yet within limits which a single instance will exhibit. Southey, in those "Specimens" to which we have already referred, asks: "Why is Pomfret the most popular of the English poets? The fact is certain, and the solution would be useful". Mr. Courthope, who quotes "The Choice" in full, has his solution for 1700, which may fit the national taste of that year and century, but can scarcely answer for that other date, a hundred years later, when Southey was but echoing Johnson, or for a hundred more years, this beginning of the twentieth century, when "The Choice" is forgotten. Where Mr. Courthope could have given us positive instruction would have been to point out that "The Choice" was and remains a tame and mediocre piece of verse, never really rising to poetry, and that precisely similar material could be and had been lifted into poetry by a genuine poet, as Herrick has done in more than one of his poems. But he is concerned only with the charm of its sentiment, and with "how felicitous was the form in which the sentiment was conveyed".

If we could once leave out of sight the constant evasion of main issues, of any direct or profound treatment of poetry as poetry, Mr. Courthope's volume would have considerable interest and even value, and such pages as those on the devotional poetry of Charles Wesley and of Cowper are admirable in themselves, and here, where the matter is a vital one, we find a real significance in the tracking of "the great under-current of religious revival" in its influx upon English poetry; and for this reason, that as Mr. Courthope admits, "the ideal of Christian liberty tended to turn the imaginations of those who cherished it away from the sphere of politics into that of religion"; from, that is, the prose and alien sphere of politics into that sphere which is religion or poetry, as you will. Then Mr. Courthope is wonderfully impartial, and writes with equal discrimination of Prior and of Cowper, and is at his best in dealing with a writer so difficult to deal with as Swift. He is almost perplexingly just to both Gray and Collins, confessing frankly that "his own admiration is equally suspended between their rival qualities". Such suspension, however much it may in a certain sense tend to equilibrium, tends also, it must be admitted, to become a pendulum. Nothing in all Mr. Courthope's careful balancing of "rival qualities" brings home to us the essential truth about both poets with the finality of a single sentence of Mr. Swinburne: "The muse gave birth to Collins; she did but give suck to Gray". That is ingenious, and an epigram; but it is fundamental criticism.

FROM THE EMPIRE TO THE CHURCH MILITANT.

"Gregory the Great." By Rev. F. Homes Dudden.
2 vols. London: Longmans. 1905. 30s. net.

MR. HOMES DUDDEN has not only produced a piece of work which will earn him the gratitude of the student of human character, of political development in the dark ages, of ecclesiastical growth from the "first six centuries" into the mediæval Church,—but he has helped in no small degree to roll away a genuine reproach often made against Oxford, that its Fellows, lost in fastidious criticism if not overweighted with the responsibilities of a pedagogue, produce

nothing worthy of their long leisure and ample opportunities.

It is difficult to know in such a work where to begin. Mr. Dudden is as versatile as the great Pope his hero. One could pardon the clerical writer pre-occupied with Gregory's place in the Catholic development of dogma or of government for scanty appreciation of the curious political anomalies of the Roman and Byzantine Courts, of the unconscious movement of the ensuing two hundred years in Italy from a vague Eastern suzerainty to the positive and robust figure of Charles the Great. Yet, excellent and fair as is Mr. Dudden's exposition of the administrative aims and dogmatic philosophy, he is still better in the field of purely secular politics. As an introduction to the study of the middle ages (which perhaps begin with Gregory's pontificate) the work is indispensable to the student. It takes its place at once and without question among standard works. Its patient thoroughness of detail and clearness of arrangement make a serious rival in mere historical accuracy unlikely; the remarkable political insight, the fairness of judgment, the largeness of view and outlook, the picturesque yet dignified narrative, place it beyond the reach of the envy or pettiness of ordinary criticism. For we have here an unusual combination of merits, which for the ideal historian must be found united, yet are rarely so found. Mere tireless research without the vivifying and transforming power of sympathetic treatment will heap material which a busy age has no leisure to assort. The brilliant essay will suggest lines of thought and will attract the average reader; but its suspicious ease and symmetry fail to carry conviction: it is dismissed as a manifesto on present-day politics dressed or disguised in the garb of the past. Oxford is well able, if it will, to do either. But the union of patience and brilliance is not so familiar there.

Gregory I. marks perhaps the precise moment when the Church supplanted the Empire, and the Pope succeeded Cæsar. There was no unscrupulous and forcible encroachment; no violent rupture; but the care of a political and social ideal in the West passed away for ever from the hand of a Byzantine sovereign. It was a bloodless and pacific revolution. It was no usurpation, but a heavy responsibility thrust upon the shoulders of the only competent and honest agent. As Constantine anticipates, so does Charles recapitulate and ratify the translation. What were the causes which, doubtless to the detriment of a purely spiritual mission, rudely placed secular power in clerical hands? The greatest fault of the Roman Empire, as of all centralised government, was its failure to supervise its own officials. This was the chief rock on which the ship of state foundered. It was the idleness or the helpless ignorance, not the oppression, of the Imperial claim to ecumenical vigilance that was to blame. The slothful supineness of a world, contented and supremely confident in the central equity, had surrendered its responsibility. This strange concentration of power, legislative, judicial and executive, in a single representative was not the result of conscious policy, of grasping ambition, or of restless passion. Forces were at work abroad too mighty for autonomy, for local liberties; and hurried into uniformity a curious medley of races, nations, tongues and creeds. The Emperor (as the representative of all) was swept of necessity by the current into a mass of minute detail, civil and municipal, which Augustus had certainly never contemplated. In the turbulence of the third century the military side of the Imperial figure, so long obscured, emerges into striking prominence. The successors of Severus II. scuffled for the purple or honestly defended the frontier; but civil administration was in abeyance; and the ties of duty and loyal submission which bound the provincial judge to the watchful emperor of civilians were snapped never to be again so closely united. In the same way has the purely civil and democratic régime in China suffered since the Taeping Rebellion. The reconstruction of Diocletian and Constantine in the fourth century could not recover a genuine control over the distant agents of the sovereign will, such as we see in the golden days of Tiberius or Trajan. A new set of bailiffs or middlemen came to the front, whose collective aim was to keep the now secluded Cæsar in complacent

ignorance. Rome was only saved from the *roi fainéant*—whether Childeric III., Mikado, Nicholas II., or Kwang-Su—by the needs of frontier defence, by the absence of a fixed rule of hereditary succession. To the peaceful Constantius II. succeed Julian, Valentinian, Theodosius—forced to be soldiers and live in the light of day. Among the lieutenants of despotism, civil and military power was rigidly kept apart; and thus an attempt was made to render the horde of functionaries accountable to the central authority. But to no purpose. From the first Constantine to Majorian, last of efficient emperors in the West, imperial edicts are full of laments and complaints of imperial agents; such as find a curious echo in the obscurer times of the Merovingians. The keynote of civil administration on the part of the emperors is distrust and suspicion of their own emissaries. Once again, as has happened not seldom in the history of nations, the sovereign becomes the spokesman and representative of the silent masses enslaved to the official world.

The Church provided the only influence which could counterbalance the corruption or injustice of the civil service. It was utilised with a generous confidence that was not misplaced. The foundations of clerical rule, for good or ill, of the prince-bishop were laid by Constantine himself: the legend of the "donation" is an expansion or an embellishment of a real truth. Paul of Samosata had united civil and episcopal functions under Aurelian. Henceforth they will be sedulously divided; only the latter office will enjoy the full trust of the Emperor. In the last years of the sixth century the civil officials disappear. Ecclesiastical and military power oust the civil; the middle ages, devout or warlike and often both at once, are foreshadowed. "The real forces of the time", says our judicious author, "were the army and the Church". It is not a little interesting to notice in our own times a new scene of the venerable combat; France, where the strictly civil and pacific bureaucracy finds enemies alternately in these domestic rivals, and will no doubt ultimately succumb to their coalition.

The triumph of the Church and the army, of the priest and the baron was then necessary for Western Europe and perhaps essential for the welfare of mankind. To impersonal system with its petty interference, fixed formulas and dull stagnation succeeded the play of personal forces, in just those departments of life which the ancient State had controlled or tried to eliminate. The hope of a heavenly home (with its demand for allegiance to an unseen Sovereign), the satisfaction of the instinctive love of combat and competition (with its deep sense of personal honour)—on these the State had looked with profound suspicion. And after the honest though ineffective efforts of the Empire to lull idealistic or combative fancies by a general and enervating ease and well-equipped leisure, men returned gladly to their primitive instincts. Of those who while bewailing the decay of the age and the nearness of judgment, actually restored confidence in secular life and gave back order to a distracted world—none worked more ably than Gregory the Great. His career is a standing vindication of the generous motives which lay behind the "clerical usurpation" of worldly functions. To Guicciardini in its degenerate days it was the "accursed tyranny of priests". To the Roman or Italian, to the peasant or artisan of the opening seventh century, to the political philosopher of any epoch, if only he is honest—it was the sole hope for the reconstruction of the Western world.

An abler apologist than Mr. Dudden it would be impossible to find; because his defence is indirect and implicit, it is all the more convincing. No one who gives patient perusal to this work will say that our warm words of praise and admiration are exaggerated. Every page bears witness to the honest labour, the sympathetic insight, of a writer of rare promise and actual achievement, who claims our grateful recognition for a work, which, covering as it does the varied phases of an heroic life of unusual interest, is still most valuable for its political philosophy. In it we see clearly the transition from the stagnation of the pagan empire to the fighting and praying middle ages.

TWO RECENT THINKERS.

"Lectures on the Philosophy of Kant and other Philosophical Lectures and Essays." By the late Henry Sidgwick. London: Macmillan. 1905. 10s. net.

"Philosophical Studies." By David G. Ritchie. London: Macmillan. 1905. 10s. net.

THESE two books have the melancholy interest which attaches to posthumous work. They are alike also in being the product of vigorous minds engaged in the sincere pursuit of truth. As they are at the same time very different, some comparison of them may be interesting as showing the tendencies of thought in our own time.

Professor Sidgwick's lectures and essays are marked by a canny—or rather an almost uncanny—caution. In one of them, which is entitled "A Dialogue on Time and Common Sense", he relates with some humour how he evaded the question of a too curious Russian Professor of Philosophy, who put to him, as he was in the habit of putting to others, the point-blank inquiry—"What do you think really exists?" This procedure is typical of Professor Sidgwick's mind throughout the volume before us. From beginning to end his attitude is critical and destructive. In twelve lectures on Kant he remorselessly brings charges of inconsistency against that great philosopher. In the three following lectures the metaphysics of T. H. Green are shown to be equally unsatisfactory. Then in two lectures more we reach the conclusion that the doctrine of Herbert Spencer "has all the serious incongruity of a metaphysical dream". At this point either chance or the skill of the editor provides a welcome relief in the shape of two excellent papers in defence of Grote's views on the Sophists. But no sooner is this brief interlude over than we find the Professor hammering away again at the "Incoherence of Empirical Philosophy". After this we have the skit, if we may so call anything which appeared in "Mind", already referred to under the title of "A Dialogue on Time and Common Sense". At last, in an address delivered to the Glasgow Philosophical Society on the Philosophy of Common Sense, we find Professor Sidgwick, spiritually speaking, with his foot on his native heath. For he claims three Glasgow professors, Francis Hutcheson, Adam Smith, and Thomas Reid, as having had so permanent an influence upon his own thought that he felt more at home in the intellectual life of Glasgow than even in that of his own university. Here then, in the very cradle of his mental being, we should expect to find him freely unbosoming himself as to what he really believes. But do we? It is true we find an admirable statement of the first principles of Common Sense, but we do not find Professor Sidgwick himself swearing allegiance to them. The passage however is worth quoting. For, if it does not tell us what Professor Sidgwick believed, it at all events lets us know what he would have liked to believe. He writes: "At the same time I cannot think Reid wrong in holding that the propositions he is most concerned to maintain as first principles are implicitly assented to by men in general. That for ordinary men sense-perception involves a belief in the existence of a thing perceived, independent of the perception: that similarly consciousness involves a belief in the existence of a permanent identical subject of changing conscious states: that ordinary moral judgment involves the belief in a real right and wrong in human action, capable of being known by a moral agent and distinct in idea from what conduces to his interest: that in ordinary thought about experience we find implicit the unreasoned assumption that every change must have a cause, and a cause adequate to the effect—all this, I think, will hardly be denied by anyone who approaches the question with a fair mind."

In the above passage we have four cardinal points of belief—(1) That the *esse* of material things is not *percipi*; (2) that we are something more than the contents of our minds; (3) that right and wrong are felt as real distinctions; (4) that every event must have a cause. These four articles of belief range over the ground of metaphysics, ethics, and logic. The first is the belief in an object, the second in a subject; the third gives

us intuitional ethics; the fourth is the principle of inductive inference.

We shall avail ourselves of these four articles presently as an aid in bringing Professor Ritchie's philosophical position before the reader. Meantime let us say something about the last essay in this volume, which is entitled *Criteria of Truth and Error*. In this essay Professor Sidgwick impugns Kant's proof of the impossibility of a general criterion of material truth. At the same time he denies the adequacy of any criterion that has been proposed. Descartes' criterion—that what is clearly and distinctly conceived is true—is limited to "truths of reason"; the empirical criterion of Mill—that pure sensation is infallible—to "truths of fact"; while Herbert Spencer's criterion, which is put forward as "applicable equally to particular and universal cognitions", is declared "inadequate to guarantee even the primordial datum of his own philosophy".

"With this negative conclusion", says Professor Sidgwick, "I must here end. In a later article I hope to treat the problem with which I have been dealing in a somewhat more positive manner". This hope was frustrated by the author's death: but his editor gives us in an appendix an extract from some lectures on *Verification of Beliefs*, "which probably furnishes in rough outline some part of what the later article would have contained". In this fragment Professor Sidgwick renounces the search for infallible criteria, and propounds instead certain methods of verification. Here is the gist of his conclusion. "Let me now sum up briefly the triple exclusion of error which I have been expounding. I disclaim the pretension of establishing absolute truth or absolute exclusion of error. But if we find that an intuitive belief appears clear and certain to ourselves contemplating it, that it is in harmony with our other beliefs relating to the same subject, and does not conflict with the beliefs of other persons competent to judge, we have reduced the risk of error with regard to it as low as is possible to reduce it."

Turning now to Professor Ritchie, we find in him a far greater readiness to adopt positive beliefs. The book before us is particularly interesting as revealing a side of the author's mind which had not hitherto been displayed to the world. For the publications by which he had been best known before were connected chiefly with social and political philosophy. But in this volume we are admitted to his most intimate thoughts on all the great problems of metaphysics. Our examination of his views will be confined to the four cardinal points of common-sense belief laid down by Professor Sidgwick, together with the question as to the criterion of truth.

First of all, Professor Ritchie is a declared Idealist. To him the *esse* of matter is *percipi*. According to him the plain man does not believe in a world outside his consciousness, except so far as he puts his consciousness inside his body. Professor Ritchie then adheres to Locke's assumption "that the immediate object of the mind in external perception is its own ideas", whereas, according to Professor Sidgwick, the merit of Reid "lay in the independence of thought required to free himself from this assumption". The question at issue may be put as a grammatical one. For the Idealist, or, as Professor Sidgwick calls him, the Mentalist, regards verbs of knowing as taking only a cognate accusative, or accusative of the internal object—we perceive our own perceptions; whereas the Realist regards such verbs as taking an accusative of the external object—we perceive things. The unconscious metaphysics of language seem here to back up the deliverance of common sense, but we have no wish to intimate that the question is thereby settled. For it remains to ask *What are things?*

As to the second article of common-sense belief Professor Ritchie seems at first sight to subscribe to it. He tells us that "our own recognition of our self-identity . . . gives us an original type of unity amid difference, of substance and attribute, of cause and effect". After other utterances of the same kind we come at last to this strong assertion. "Whatever we think away or leave out, we cannot as a fact leave out the self that thinks. This is the permanent value of Descartes' formula, '*Cogito, ergo sum*', and it

is at the same time the main and most important doctrine of Kant—that it is only the unity of self-consciousness that makes knowledge possible. All attempts to derive this self or ego, or whatever we choose to call it, from series of sensations associated together imply a *hysteron proteron*. It is already presupposed in the possibility of sensations forming a series *for a self*. But at this point Professor Ritchie soars above common sense, for he goes on to assert that “the self which is logically presupposed in all knowledge is only the bare form of self, and receives its actual content from events which happen in time and are known in experience”. It is doubtless this double doctrine of a transcendental and empirical ego which renders possible a previous statement, that the “soul” and the “thing” are alike mental constructs—inferences, not primitive data of consciousness.

As regards the felt distinction between right and wrong Professor Ritchie is clear that there is “an ought to be”, an ideal of conduct. But this *a priori* notion of “ought” is a blank cheque which has to be filled up by experience. The end, according to Professor Ritchie, is not happiness (in the sense of contentment), but rather self-realisation. But then the self to be realised is an ideal good, which may be called God.

On the fourth article of common sense, namely, our conviction that every event has a cause, the general tenour of Professor Ritchie's teaching is the same as on the two preceding ones. We assume all along, he says, that every change has a cause, but what things are causes of others has to be determined by experience.

Lastly, on the question of the criterion of truth and error we get, as usual, a bold pronouncement from Professor Ritchie. “The sole ultimate test of truth is coherence in thinking and experience.” This is identified by him both with Descartes' criterion and with the principle of non-contradiction.

FRANCISCAN LEGENDS IN ITALIAN ART.

“Franciscan Legends in Italian Art.” By Emma Gurney Salter. London: Dent. 1905. 4s. 6d. net.

IT is not without trepidation in these days, when S. Francis is being so sedulously misdrawn in the name of scientific criticism, that the reviewer takes up a new work relating to the great Saint of Assisi. What a relief then, and what a delight, to find that Miss Salter's last book is an entirely sound, useful, practical, much-needed work, which it would be difficult adequately to praise, and impossible almost to over-estimate. Miss Salter, with unnecessary if engaging diffidence, apologises for the guide-book character of certain chapters: but it is just a guide, or failing him a guide-book, that we need in these recondite ways, and here in this book we find succinctly grouped and systematically arranged clear indications how we should seek and where we may find the principal Franciscan pictures of Italy, and especially of Umbria and Tuscany. She trusts that her book may recall (however faintly) “enchanted days” spent in these fair provinces: most assuredly it will, and it should do more than that; it should help to bring enchanted days to those who as yet have not tasted of the joys of these enchanting lands.

Miss Salter has the gift of making us look at a picture with intelligent interest, and in a simple natural fashion, without a shred of high art tall talk. What could be more admirable, for instance, than her mode of dealing with Giotto's frescoes in the Upper Church at Assisi: for all the twenty-eight of them she simply gives us—using her own excellent translation for the purpose—an extract from S. Bonaventure's “*Legenda Major*”, the source which we know inspired Giotto. It is a positive delight to make the round of this immortal series with the Seraphic Doctor for guide, and it is Miss Salter who, with a fine instinct, has thus systematically pressed him into our service. We share her view that there is no true portrait of S. Francis in the modern sense of the word. We are dependent on the remarkable pen portrait of Celano and on painters'

ideals: her ideal is Fra Angelico's presentment of the Saint, ours Andrea della Robbia's.

There is a capital summary of the life of S. Francis in Chapter I., necessary we suppose to the uninitiated. We submit to Miss Salter that P. Leone Patrem in his fascinating chronological studies has successfully proved that the first companions joined the Saint not in 1209 but in 1208, and that the Rule was approved by Innocent III. not in 1210 but in 1209. The life is brief, and the reader, for fuller particulars, is referred to the “early legends”, to M. Paul Sabatier's “*Vie de S. François*”, and to a chapter in Miss Duff Gordon's “*Story of Assisi*”. Here we must protest, for this counsel has in it the savour of bias. M. Sabatier by all means, but were there no other, were there not more faithful biographers of the Poor Man of Assisi between S. Bonaventure and the French writer? M. Sabatier's portrait is notoriously fanciful: in Chalippe, in Papini, Chavin de Malan, Le Monnier, in Palomes even, and even in Mrs. Oliphant and Knox Little, we have the truer presentment, though these writers may not have in the same degree the siren gift of literary style and artistic treatment which so easily dazzles and misleads. Then when Miss Salter says that the Saint's emaciation resulted from “incessant toil and frequent illnesses”, she should have added that cruel voluntary austerities accounted for much of the emaciation, and perhaps for all the illnesses. Physical mortification is repellent to the modern mind: the neo-franciscan cannot bear to think that his idol could have resorted to such degrading practices: but the fact is that S. Francis was an ascetic like any other Saint, and we do not advance in our knowledge of him by shirking the unpleasant subject.

So much in criticism: almost all the rest is praise. Miss Salter, with the good sense that informs her work, invites “suggestions or corrections that may make this little book more complete or accurate”. Some few points we should like to argue with her at length, or rather to chat about amicably, if space allowed of it; of the suggestions she invites there seem but few to offer. On page 14, for “Order of Penitence” read “Order of Penance”. On page 48 Dante's “scalzasi” is badly rendered by “unsandals himself”; the men of the world who followed S. Francis wore shoes; “becomes barefoot” is the literal translation. “Zoccolo” (page 49) is not “a sandal” merely, but a sandal with a wooden sole; the modern Capuchins do not wear zoccoli, but sandals with leathern soles. The zoccoli in later days in Italy had become peculiar to the Riformati. The tonsure of the friars is not “sometimes wide, sometimes narrow”, but sometimes big and sometimes not so big; width and narrowness can relate to the corona only. The important scapular has been omitted from the description of the Dominican habit (page 126). S. Anthony of Padua is not “the protector of beasts of burden” (page 169), but S. Anthony Abbot, *the* S. Anthony. It is (unfortunately) no longer possible to assert positively that Fra Leone was the scribe who wrote the Breviary preserved as a relic at S. Damian's (page 189). Finally to her useful bibliography might well be added the handsome, richly illustrated large quarto of Plon Nourrit “*S. François d'Assise*” (Paris, 1885); perhaps also P. Giuseppe Fratini's “*Storia della Basilica e del Convento di San Francesco in Assisi*”, and as an interesting curiosity, Père Bovet's “*Saint François et son tombeau glorieux*”.

IL SANTO.

“Il Santo.” Di Antonio Fogazzaro. Milano: Casa Editrice, Baldini, Castoldi & Co. 1906.

THE Italians are not as a rule a reading people, and being of an economical turn of mind, do not spend much on books—for which reasons we may conclude that when a novel by Signor Fogazzaro goes into a second edition in less than a fortnight, it is a sign that it deals with some topic of exceptional and general interest. This is the case with “*Il Santo*”, a continuation of its author's well-known “*Piccolo Mondo Moderno*”. The plot deals with the burning question of the hour—the possible reconciliation of the Church

with the nation, rather than with the State. Thoughtful Italians, even those who are none too orthodox, have at length come to the conclusion that a systematic de-christianisation of the masses is not conducive either to their happiness or to the maintenance of public order and of monarchical and constitutional principles. Since the advent to the Papal throne of the present conciliatory Pontiff, there has come about a distinct rapprochement between the Church and the people of Italy, which most sensible Italians hope to see accentuated as time goes on, thereby creating a bulwark between the Monarchy and the forces of a misguided Socialism, allied with a blatant and vulgar atheism and anarchy. Signor Fogazzaro's book therefore is of thrilling interest to the majority of educated Italians, and the fact that the Pope has not put it on the Index—though it was rumoured that he had done so—goes far to prove that his Holiness does not wholly dissent from the famous novelist as to the necessity for reform of the Church within the Church in Italy similar to that dreamt of and prayed for by Sir Thomas More in this country immediately before the Reformation. As usually happens with a novel with a purpose, "Il Santo" has a defective and not particularly dramatic plot. In this particular it recalls Miss Corelli's "The Master Christian" and Mr. Hall Caine's "Eternal City"—with this difference, however, that it is magnificently written, full of vivid descriptions and sentient with genuine passion and pathos. Benedetto, "the Saint" is a young gentleman who has repented of an unfortunate love entanglement and sought refuge from a life of sin in the solemn cloisters of Subdico, not as a novice, but as a sort of spiritual boarder under the direction of Father Clemente, a pious Benedictine, who converts him into an enthusiastic missionary and reformer. Fully realising that the mediæval and immovable ways of the majority of the Italian priesthood are incompatible with modern progress and modern views of religion, however orthodox these may otherwise be, Benedetto struggles bravely against the intrigues of a retrogressive clergy, and, finally, like Mr. Hall Caine's hero, manages to have an interview with the Pope himself. This is the culminating scene of the book, and being sketched with extraordinary vividness, it produces a very great effect. The Pope in question, needless to say, is none other than the saintly and revered Pius X., who listens to Benedetto's ardent polemics and appeals for ecclesiastical reform with, all things considered, remarkable patience and sympathy. His Holiness, who however is a thorough Italian, and therefore prudent, assures the "Saint" that although he appreciates his enthusiasm and shares most of his views on the necessity for a less worldly-minded clergy and a simpler ritual, none the less he remembers the wise old proverb of his ancestors, that *Chi va piano, va sano*, and that, if a schism is to be avoided, it will only be by a slower but surer method of reform than the one dear to the burning heart of Il Santo. Benedetto, somewhat crestfallen, but for all that greatly consoled and hopeful, takes his leave of the admirable Pontiff; but his interview with the successor of S. Peter being noised abroad he presently becomes a victim to his enemies both in the Church and out of it, and finally, worn out with vexation of spirit, he falls sick and dies, blessing as he does so his disciples whom he beseeches to continue his unfinished work of reform and conciliation.

The trend of the book throughout is the advocacy of a reform not of dogma but of ecclesiastical discipline and therein lies both its success and its failure. With the masses it will certainly be popular—it is so already—but it will be otherwise with the more thoughtful Italian Catholics, who, in the first place do not like the introduction on the stage of fiction of an actual Pope, and, in the second, consider that the subject might have been treated with greater weight in pamphlet form. In this they are probably right. Mgr. Bonomelli, the reforming but very pretentious Bishop of Cremona, undoubtedly shares Signor Fogazzaro's ideas, but the former has certainly emphasised the importance of the points advocated by bringing them before the public unaccompanied by the somewhat tawdry surroundings of a very up-to-date love story. "Il Santo" is a book to read and ponder over. It is finely written

and, in an age of scepticism, treats religious questions with unaffected reverence. Its success proves both the strength and the weakness of the Catholic party in Italy—its strength by its popularity and its weakness by the exposure it makes of the principal cause of the non-success of the Italian Catholics—as a political as well as religious party. They have to struggle not only with that form of scepticism which is now so general in Europe but also with certain mediæval traditions that tend to materialise only too grievously things spiritual and devotional.

NOVELS.

"In the Hands of the Czar." By Garrett Mill. London: Blackwood. 1905. 6s.

Mr. Mill demands from his readers a close attention which the intrinsic interest of his novel will not adequately reward. A beautiful English girl, left with a few hundred pounds and no relatives, installs herself at a Montreux hotel in order to marry well. Here she meets a Russian Grand Duke, masquerading as an English peer, and a British Secret Service official who perform certain tricks with the banknotes of which her fortune consists which bewilder us as completely as they did the heroine. The Grand Duke has come to the hotel to make a secret treaty with a German diplomatist: they conduct their negotiations for the most part on the lake in a boat manned by the Englishman's servant disguised as an Italian boatman. So a morganatic marriage duly takes place, and if a revolution in Russia had not turned the Grand Duke into a Tsar, everybody (except the Secret Service man) would have lived happily ever after. But morganatic marriages are like pie-crusts, and long unselfish devotion can count on its reward, and the wife of a Grand Duke will not accept the position of *maitresse en titre* to a Tsar. The author's ambition somewhat outsteps his powers: as a novel of diplomacy the book is unconvincing, and we have not found it interesting as a love story. The Secret Service agent is far too like Mr. Seton Merriman's strong silent Englishman. The heroine goes through three very marked stages: first, a husband-hunting, girl of the period; second, a woman of fine character devoted to her Grand Duke but proudly careful of her own honour; third, a woman ready to treat her marriage as a thing of no account because her husband has been forced by high politics to desert her for a Czarina. The transitions are not explained or even made plausible.

"The Fortune-Hunter." Translated from the Swedish of Harold Molander by Karin H. Cagney. London: Heinemann. 1905. 6s.

Dr. Georg Brandes, it appears, described this book as "a romance of the same kind as Dumas' 'Three Musketeers'", and so far as a book of rollicking gaiety can be likened to a most depressing study of the horrors of war he is no doubt justified. But it is a fine novel, and its combination of stirring adventures with a sombre atmosphere is striking. We are accustomed to find all our cloak and dagger novelists extreme optimists, but in Sweden it seems to be recognised that one may go through surprising and brisk adventures, and yet live uncomfortably and come to a bad end. The scene is laid in Northern Europe during the Thirty Years' War, and we get glimpses of Wallenstein and Gustavus Adolphus. The hero is a rogue who uses other men's passports and marries under false pretences, but he is almost likeable, and the web of treachery which overspreads the wars and negotiations of the time goes far to justify him. We are given unnecessarily disgusting, though faithful, descriptions of the sack of a town by the Imperialists, but several of the characters have humour, and the author shows great skill in handling a multitude of figures.

"Who was Lady Thorne?" By Florence Warden. London: John Long. 1905. 6s.

It is impossible to feel much interest in the problem of this pale reflection of "The Woman in White", who is also a feminine Enoch Arden. There is no mystery

to be guessed by the reader, and Miss Warden shows no special power in treating the complications caused by the return of a wife, believed dead, to the home in which she had been replaced. We do not see why she gives her characters titles: the story would not be affected if peers and baronets were excluded, and a slight self-denial of this kind would have prevented the solecism of describing an earl's eldest son as "Lord John Murrow". It is very odd that practised novelists should make such blunders, but Sir Conan Doyle has unrepentantly carried worse lapses than this into the dignified stronghold of a Collected Edition. Miss Warden's "Lord John", possibly chafing under the novelist's error, shows distinct lower middle-class traits, going so far as to say at the moment of a proposal "You don't seem to recognise how much girls think of being a Countess".

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"The Arundel Club's Publications, 1905" (Hon. Sec., Robert Ross, Esq., 10 Sheffield Gardens, W.).

This useful Club is not yet, perhaps, very generally known, so we may explain that it was founded two years ago for the circulation among members of reproductions from pictures in private collections and elsewhere. The subscription is a guinea, and for that sum the subscribers obtain fifteen reproductions. Those in the second year's portfolio, now before us, are varied in character and valuable or curious in quality. No. 1 is the "Portrait of a Youth", by Bronzino, from the late Mr. J. E. Taylor's collection, a work that anticipates Vandyck in the manner of its aristocratic grace. It is followed by one of the rare landscapes of Reynolds, seen at a recent Old Masters exhibition. Further on comes a "S. Michael" that caused a good deal of speculation as to the identity of its author when it was shown at the Burlington Fine Arts Club. It is now established that the painter, Bartolomé Vermejo, was born at Cordova and worked in and about Barcelona. Two Giorgionesque portraits are included, one from the collection of the Marquis of Bristol, very near in style to the "Ariosto" of the National Gallery, the other, Mr. R. H. Benson's, ascribed to Palma Vecchio, and not unlike the portrait that used to bear the same name at Trafalgar Square. Among the curiosities is a "Susanna and the Elders" by Lorenzo Lotto, and a confused allegory called the "Stream of Life" ascribed traditionally to Hogarth. Through the middle panel runs a stream, which is not a stream of life, but divides off the lucky from the unlucky who occupy the two left-hand and right-hand panels respectively. On their heads Fortune, high in the air of the middle panel, showers forms of good and bad luck, and on the extreme right Hell Mouth occupies its old mediæval place in the Judgment scenes, but here as a detail of bad luck. From the battlements of Heaven (?) on the other side the fortunate are waving bottles. Beneath Fortune is a bridge, and on it are figures described as Hogarth with a palette, and Richardson the novelist with a bag of money. An Hogarthian character certainly runs through the figures, and a resemblance that strikes one elsewhere to a later artist, Goya, appears in some of their poses. Other pictures reproduced are by Watteau, Valdes Leal, Cima, Antonio Moro and Quentin Matsys.

"Hakluytus Posthumus or Purchas His Pilgrimes." By Samuel Purchas B.D. Vols. VII., VIII. Glasgow: MacLehose. 1905. 12s. 6d. net each.

Messrs. MacLehose's welcome reprint of Purchas proceeds steadily and the contents of the two new volumes are not less varied and interesting than those of the first six. The greater portion of volume vii. is occupied with narratives describing at considerable length the experiences and detailed observations of Portuguese travellers to Ethiopia—Sir Francis Alvarez, Don John of Castro, and Don John of Bermudez. The clock is then sharply put back in order that part of volume vii. and volume viii. may be devoted to reproducing "The Historie of the First Expedition to Jerusalem by Godfrey of Bullen, Robert of Normandie and other Christian Princes", in other words to bringing the Crusades under the general titles of "Acts of the Pilgrimes", and this narrative practically winds up with a "Pilgrimage to Jerusalem, Written in very old English Rime". The Crusades thus described, Purchas thinks himself not unnaturally entitled to add a section on "A Myserie of Papall Iniquitie Revealed" in which a patriotic ultra-Protestant divine allows himself to run riot, for "what are Englishmen but in triple respects, Normans or Northmen?" and did not "this Holy Land business" advance "Papall Monarchie", to the "loosing of Satan after one thousand yeeres", to Temporalities, Collations of Benefices, Dispensations, and "Indulgences, disputed, incurable, gainfull", "that through covetousness with fayned words he [the Pope] might make merchandise of men, as turpis lucr

cupidus, a lover of filthy gayne, yea, of the souls of men" and much more to the same effect. His mind being thus eased, and the reader being thus edified, Purchas returns to the reign of Elizabeth and the remainder of volume viii. is given to travels mainly in Turkey in which the realms of "the Grand Signior, otherwise called the Great Turke" are elaborately described by Masters William Biddulph, Edward Barton and others. Not the least important of these Eastern narratives is "The Brieve Compendium of the Historie" of that wonderful traveller and adventurer "Sir Anthonie Sherley" who was the first English resident at a Persian Court, who started life as an undergraduate of Hart Hall, Oxford, and who after being a Fellow of All Souls died a Count of the Holy Roman Empire, an Admiral of the Levant Seas and a Mirza of Persia. In Sherley's narrative and life rings the true Elizabethan spirit. Perhaps some day the compressed selections in Purchas will encourage a researcher to present to the world the complete narrative of his Persian adventures from the original MS. now in the Bodleian Library. But even as it is the record here given is delightfully full of surprising incidents, and it will be a queasy taste that will not find much in these two volumes to charm a leisure hour and stimulate thought. It should be added that the technical qualities of the reproduction continue to be eminently satisfactory.

"Famous Art Cities." No. 4. Florence. By Adolf Philipp. Translated by P. G. Konody. London: Grevel. New York: Scribner. Leipzig: Seemann. 1905.

This is an excellent compendium of the art and, on the whole, of the history of Florence. As a supplement to the guide-books it offers distinct advantages to the average traveller. The art is illuminative and does not bore; the history is interesting and intelligently woven into the art. There are one hundred and seventy illustrations from photographs, nearly all admirably reproduced. We have not the German text before us, but it is easy to divine that Mr. Konody has done the work of translation well. Misprints are, unfortunately, rather numerous, perhaps because the book has been printed in Germany: the country of origin is sufficiently manifest when we read of "Genua" instead of Genoa. Herr Philipp writes serenely enough—and assuredly there should be no disturbing element in a book of the kind—until he comes in contact with a Medici of the Grand Ducal line: then all is changed; then serenity, good sense, good judgment, nay good taste, take leave of him, and even his appreciations of art become obscured. The Piazza dell' Annunziata is "unfortunately disfigured by a poor equestrian statue of Ferdinand I." (it is by Gian di Bologna); in the Piazza Santa Trinità a "clumsy antique column . . . proclaims the glory of the Grand Duke Cosimo"; Gian di Bologna's magnificent statue of Cosimo in the Piazza della Signoria is "arrogant"; the imposing Cappella dei Principi is "pretentious"; Vasari's frescoes in the Palazzo Vecchio are not condemned for bad art, but for perpetuating "the sham glory of the Medici in their decline": Bronzino's portrait of the Duke Alessandro is reproduced and we are called upon to note "the animal-like features of his coarse face", and yet if Cellini's exquisite silver "testone" had been there in its place we should have had instead to admire ethereal features and a beautiful head of curly hair. All this is rather small beer, and we regret to find capital made of it in a book which we have read with interest, pleasure and profit. Mistakes and misconceptions in the historical part of Chapter XVII. "Florence as a Medicean Duchy" are over-numerous, and the slip that it was Alessandro and not Ippolito who died a sudden death at Itri is particularly unfortunate. On the other hand, we are glad to note that Herr Philipp has not a good word for a modern favourite, the infamous pimp Lorenzaccio, called by some the "Tuscan Brutus". Cosimo, we are finally to take note, was "from the human point of view a monster"; so be it: but at least we are told, solemnly, in a sentence by itself, that "he was not without ability"; this confirms the opinion of Mr. William Heywood who in a recent work affirmed that the great Duke was "no fool".

"Modern Germany." By O. Eltzbacher. London: Smith, Elder. 1905. 7s. 6d.

The author of this very instructive book defines its scope as a study of Germany's political and economic problems, her policy, her ambitions, and the causes of her success. At the present time there are few subjects in which Englishmen are more directly interested. Mr. Eltzbacher points out that though Germany is very heavily handicapped by nature and by her history, by traditions and by her customs, notwithstanding, and especially in the race for economic success, the nation which but three decades ago was poor and backward, has become Great Britain's greatest and most dangerous rival on sea and land the world over. Politically Germany's position in regard to ourselves, to Austria-Hungary, and to Russia is amongst the most important questions of the time. Her dealings with social questions, especially with those agitated by the great Social Democratic party and the general state of the working classes, directs attention to her perhaps more than to any other nation of the world. In addition to discussing the expansion of

Germany in regard to other European countries the greater number of chapters is devoted to such subjects as the German Emperor as a political factor, the armed forces of Germany, her rural industries, her waterways and canals, railways and railway policy, and lastly her fiscal policy. This survey of the Germans' industrial life is extremely well done, and we do not know any book which within such moderate limits enables one so well to estimate the ability and energy which are devoted by the State to the purpose of furthering the material prosperity and power of the German people. After reading these chapters and especially that on Fiscal policy, the reader feels bound to exclaim that Germany has won the success she deserves. Mr. Eltzbacher points a most effective contrast between the course of protectionist policy in Germany and that of free trade in Great Britain. Even the most dogmatic free trader must be startled to find the unanimity with which all classes of Germans after years of prosperity under protection criticise free trade in England as a policy which has failed and is condemned by its results. Indeed he will find that what he may ascribe to a delusion of Mr. Chamberlain has its origin in nearly all the best heads that have been in Germany from List down to the economists of to-day.

"Blake Family Records, 1600 to 1700." By Martin J. Blake. London: Elliot Stock. 1905. 18s.

The Clan Blake has rooted so deeply in Irish soil that it can afford to dispense with "Arthur, Prince of Wales", the Welsh ancestor provided for it by Mr. Charles Liniger in 1730. Few families in these islands can trace back to 1290, the year Richard Cadel was bailiff of the town of Galway, and Mr. Blake is justified in feeling some pride that the lineal descendants in the male line of the said Richard still own land acquired by their ancestor six hundred years ago. The first volume of records published in 1902 covered the period between 1300 and 1600, but the want of an index rendered the Calendar useless for any purpose of reference. This second volume which brings the catalogue down to 1700 remedies the omission, but leaves its own contents unindexed, making their examination a difficult task. There are many outside the Blake "nation" who will be glad to search through these records as they are more than of family interest and repay investigation. The genealogist may have to be careful, for the editor has had to overhaul his pedigrees, which looks as if he published them in the first instance without sifting his material sufficiently. The Athlone pursuivant could have furnished the names of his own sisters correctly had he been asked and so there was no excuse for their being given wrongly in the first volume. Mistakes having been made Mr. Blake seems to have done his best to correct them, and it is a pleasure to be able to add, he understands the form in which family history should be cast; he produces documents for inspection and confines tradition within the narrowest limits, setting an example which we hope will be widely followed. The photographic facsimiles of deeds and plates of seals have come out well: one of the illustrations, a portrait of Sir Valentine Blake of Menlo date 1643, recalls the remarks on "atavism" in Mr. Baring-Gould's "Old Country Life". The 14th baronet will doubtless consider this a compliment. If not he ought to.

"Normandy." By Nico Jungman. Text by G. E. Mitton. London: Black. 1905. 10s. net.

We begin to think that the season has arrived to call a truce to the production of books dealing with Normandy, but we are forced to assume by the appearance of this volume that there is an insatiable desire on the part of the British public to have more verbal descriptions of a country that we should have imagined to be already over-described and an equally keen longing to become possessed of a style of illustrated literature which clearly owes its origin to the picture postcard. From the collocation of words in the title, the chief appeal to the public in this book is intended to lie in the illustrations, but while the text is not ill done, considering how much it covers well-trodden ground, the artist's work is crude and irritating. There seems to be throughout an attempt to imitate Cassier's with disastrous results. There are two or three very charming drawings of girls' heads, but with that exception the "sticky" colouring spoils whatever merit the pictures may have had. There is a landscape of "a road near Rouen" which both in its arrangement and its hues is about as bad as such a production can be. If it be necessary to illustrate these books why cannot the artists be limited to pen-and-ink? We can recall a book on Normandy so illustrated by Mr. Pennell which aroused very different sentiments in the reader, and conveyed something of the charm of the Norman towns and people.

"Wordsworth's Literary Criticism." Edited with an Introduction by Nowell C. Smith. Oxford: At the University Press. 1905. 2s. 6d. net.

Mr. Nowell Smith has collected from the prefaces and appendices to Wordsworth's poems a good deal of interesting critical matter. One of the Coleridges declared that Wordsworth

might have been a great prose writer if he had not been a great poet. As it is, nothing Wordsworth produced in this medium is comparable with Milton's prose, yet most of the prefaces and notes are worth reading for their own sake. In the preface to the "Lyrical Ballads" Wordsworth discussed his favourite theory that prose and poetry are in essence exactly the same; and in an appendix to the same poems he returned to the subject, and argued it out to its logical conclusion. His arguments are very interesting and their sincerity entire, but what an appalling thing it would be to translate some of Wordsworth's own lyrics from poetry to prose. One had rather try to make poetry of "Mr. Wilkinson a clergyman". What would Wordsworth's "Intimation of Immortality" come to, reduced to prose even as good as Wordsworth's own, or Shelley's "Hymn to Intellectual Beauty"?

"Highways and Byways in Oxford and the Cotswolds" (Macmillan, 6s.) is the latest addition to this deservedly popular series. It is by Herbert A. Evans and the illustrator is F. L. Griggs whose work in these volumes is well known. His line work in the present volume is decidedly effective. Oxford is within easy reach of most of the Cotswold country and Mr. Evans has drawn it into his book with tolerable success.—We have received Parts XVI. and XVII. of "The Gentleman's Magazine Library" (Stock) dealing with the topography of London. These volumes complete an admirable and important series edited by G. L. Gomme which has taken up twenty years of work.

SOME LAW BOOKS.

"English Constitutional History." By Thomas Pitt Taswell-Langmead. Sixth Edition. Edited by Philip A. Ashworth. London: Stevens and Haynes. 1905. 18s.

There is no better book on the Constitutional History of England for legal students or for the purposes of the non-professional educated reader than the treatise by Mr. Taswell-Langmead. It has had thirty years of extraordinary popularity—a popularity not confined to this country alone but extending to the students of English Constitutional History on the Continent. This is easily understood when Mr. Taswell-Langmead's own learning and ability are taken in conjunction with the fact that the original researches of the great constitutionalists are embodied in it and presented in the most accessible and convenient form. The principal office of the present editor has been the cutting down of certain notes by a previous editor considered superfluous and in the addition of two or three pages to the text which are supposed to review the more recent developments of the Constitution. As to these we are bound to say that they do not constitute any improvement in the book—rather the reverse. The editor dates his preface from Leipsic. Apparently as Doctor Juris he is resident in Germany and this may account for a want of familiarity with the recent history of events in England evident in his new sections, which fortunately are inconsiderable. We need only mention that he speaks of the Employers' Liability Bill when he means the Workmen's Compensation Act and he speaks of an Old Age Pensions Act which is certainly not to be found on the statute book. But still the value of the treatise is not to any serious extent diminished by this editorial addition.

"The General Principles of the Law of Corporations." By C. T. Carr. Cambridge University Press. 1905. 7s. 6d.

This very interesting dissertation on the law of corporations which embraces a very wide field not only of municipal and commercial institutions but of religious and social bodies such as clubs is a slightly altered reprint of the Yorke Prize Essay for 1902. It is not so much a book for the practical lawyer as an historic and philosophic treatment of the growth of the idea of the artificial person in English law. The discussions on the liability of corporations in actions where malice is of the essence of the action, as in malicious prosecution, and the strange anomalies of the quasi-corporation, are very ably brought to the student's attention. In reference to this latter subject the author's treatment of the most remarkable development of the quasi-corporation in the case of the trade unions is of special interest. It appears to us that he reduces the House of Lords' decision in the Taff Railway case to the simple question whether the Trade Unions Act 1871 was rightly construed. The author says "Since the Taff Vale case it appears that a kind of fresh legal entity—something which for the moment we must be content to call a quasi-corporation, has come into existence". But even granting the right of the House of Lords so to bring into existence a legal monstrosity there still remains the fact that if a trade union were brought under that category it might have a good defence from being sued by virtue of a special Act. The trade unions contended that they had such an Act in that of 1871; and it is an undoubted fact that the history of it and the construction always put upon it until the famous decision was in favour of the trade-union contention.

(Continued on page 854.)

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"A Practical Guide to the Law of Patents." By Harry Baird Hemming. London: Waterlow. 1905. 6s. net.

If any reader wishes to obtain a general view of the principles and procedure relating to the grants of patents for inventions this little book may be recommended. He will also have before him the more recent Patent Acts, especially that of 1902, which is the principal one now in force, with the Rules and Orders and all the forms. It is strictly an elementary book which only claims to be useful as a first guide to inventors who are contemplating applying for a patent: and the topic of litigation is wholly untreated of. But within these limits there is much to be commended. We doubt in this, as in all similar cases, whether an intending patentee would be able, whatever help he may derive from the book, to dispense with the aid of a practical agent; but undoubtedly he would learn much which to him as an inventor would be interesting and of considerable value. To any lawyer or student who may only require to understand some principle of patent law which may turn up in the course of some piece of non-patent business we should think he might refer to Mr. Hemming with advantage. We notice for example a page in which he describes the differences in various countries in obtaining patents and the different stages at which the inventor's expenses fall. Dickens described the Circumlocution Office and Clemens' difficulties about patents, and English inventors have had in truth much to complain of; but under any system the expenses and risks of patents must be considerable, and it does not appear that other countries have been more successful than our own in reducing them.

"The Law of Motor Cars and Motor Cycles." "The Law of Heavy Motor Cars." By Donald Henry Pettitt. London: Jordan. 1905. 3s. 6d. net.

The other day a barrister had a case laid before him for opinion on a point of motor-car law. His first question was "Is there any book on motor-car law?" There may be others, but at any rate, having these books before us, we were able to refer him to them, pretty certain that he would find what he wanted, or, if not exactly that, something which would give him a practical suggestion. The law as to motor cars is one of the newest branches of law, and one of the most important. From the point of view too of an author he is happy in having a subject in it which has a wide appeal to a great variety of readers. We should be safe in recommending these two books to almost any reader in the assurance that he could read or refer to them with pleasure and interest. They are thoroughly complete and not merely a straggling edition of the Acts; they are full of information on all possible points. The subject of offences, penalties and appeals is treated with especial carefulness and exactness. The Motor Car Act, 1903, which is at present in operation, will expire on 31 December, 1906, unless it is renewed. Mr. Balfour's Government promised that there should be an inquiry before further legislation was proposed. No Government is likely to meddle with such a thorny question without such a preliminary investigation; and it is doubtful whether the year 1906 will see new legislation proposed. More probably the present Act will be renewed, as usually happens with admittedly provisional statutes. In the meantime all who wish to be well posted in motor-car law cannot do better than have Mr. Pettitt's volumes by them.

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RHODESIA EXPLORATION.

THE eleventh ordinary general meeting of the Rhodesia Exploration and Development Company (Limited) was held on December 21 at Winchester House, Mr. John Sear presiding.

The Secretary having read the usual notices, the Chairman said the authorised capital had been increased since June 30, 1904, from £230,000 to £252,000, and the issued capital from 227,276 to 250,231 shares. The reserve fund, £350,000, remained the same as it was a year ago. Sundry creditors, £5,981, exhibited a decrease of £19,000 from last year, all the Company's loans having been paid off. Contingent liabilities amounted to £26,077, showing a decrease over the figures in the previous balance-sheet of £55,782, made up chiefly of calls not yet made on shares. Regarding the guarantee of 3½ per cent. of the interest on £250,000 debentures of the Ayrshire Gold Mine and Lomagunda Railway Company, the British South Africa Company gave notice in March last of their intention to exercise the right of purchasing the line at cost. When the cash was received, about one-half of the debentures would be paid off, and their contingent liability under the guarantee would accordingly be reduced to the same extent. On the other side of the balance-sheet the item of "various claims and farms" amounted to £31,938, being a decrease of £1,645 from last year, chiefly accounted for by the writing-off of a few claims which had been abandoned. "Various shares and debentures" stood at £409,440, showing a decrease of about £80,000, as compared with the figures of a year ago, chiefly owing to amounts written off shares. The Company's investments quoted on the Stock Exchange had a market value on June 30 last of £246,014; but taken at the last making-up prices—December 11—they amounted to £316,748, exhibiting an appreciation on cost of about £103,000. The Company had five stands at Bulawayo, upon one of which their offices and other buildings were situate, and three stands at Salisbury, all but one of which figured in their books at £1 each, although the directors estimated their value at about £15,000, including the buildings. Bearer warrants, £370, was a new item in the balance-sheet, the directors having decided to issue bearer warrants for the convenience of dealings on the Paris Bourse. Loans to subsidiary companies amounted to £133,654, as compared with £120,867 a year ago, but the amount at the present time was £90,337. Debentures had been issued by the Gaika Company, and, consequently, the amount advanced to that company had been transferred to shares and debentures account. Loans on security, £70,107, exhibited an increase of £63,000 over the figures of last year; they were chiefly shares "contangoed," for which the Company got good interest. Investments in colonial Government securities, &c., stood at £31,880, or £12,500 more than last year, and cash in Bulawayo and in London amounted to £7,847. They had virtually at the present time cash in hand, investments in colonial and foreign securities, English railway debentures, loans at short call, &c., amounting to £126,376. Passing to the profit and loss account, he stated that the item of "mining proposals abandoned," £2,380, showed a decrease of £11,348, as compared with last year's amount. On the other side dividends and interest figured at £5,296, as against £3,314; profit on shares sold amounted to £80,906, or £73,500 more than in the previous year; and agency and other fees at Bulawayo and Salisbury stood at £12,824, showing a decrease of £6,400. The latter had been caused by allowances which they had been compelled to make to their agency companies. The net result was that the Company had made a profit of £75,007 for the year, against a debit balance of £2,119 for the previous year. Adding the balance brought forward, £101,072, and the premiums on the shares issued this year, £83,796, a total credit of £259,874 was arrived at. Having so large a sum virtually to the credit of profit and loss account, the directors had considered it more to the interests of the shareholders and to the placing of the Company upon a very sure and reliable basis to write some of the assets down very considerably, and they had accordingly debited the profit and loss account with £155,632. After allowing for these writings-down, the sum carried forward was £104,242, the directors having come to the conclusion that, in view of the present condition of the mining market and the difficulty of floating the Company's subsidiaries, it would be wise not to declare any dividend for the present. He afterwards referred in detail to their different interests, and stated that, with regard to land, the Board had finally settled with the Chartered Company. The total area in which this Company were now interested amounted to about 214,500 acres, or very nearly 500 square miles. The difference between the present and earlier figures arose from the fact that they were now able to state the survey figures instead of approximate areas. They held this ground upon specially favourable terms, as they only paid a quit-rent of 10s. per farm of about 6,375 acres, and in respect of a considerable portion of their ground they would receive half of any licence moneys paid upon mining claims which might be pegged thereon. The cost of their ground as it stood in the books was about 8d. per acre. Having alluded at some length to the various companies in which they were interested, giving the latest information respecting the position and prospects of the properties, the Chairman remarked that the twelve months beginning on January 1 last had been a series of bitter disappointments to the large body of the British public who were interested in "Kaffirs." There were, to his mind, two very important factors which the investing and speculative public did not recognise in connexion with African enterprises. First, and probably foremost, had been the fear that upon a Liberal Government's coming into power one of its chief objects would be the cancellation of the Chinese ordinance. He did not for one moment think that any responsible Government would tamper with the internal affairs of the Transvaal colony, yet one could not but recognise the baneful influence such a fear had, and might still exercise, on the minds of the investing public. This fear, however, which he thought was groundless, should have no bearing upon Rhodesian affairs, for Chinese labour was not employed in Rhodesia, and, so far as his advice went, there was no cause there to supplement the present supply of native labour. This important point could not be too widely known, the more so as it was borne out by the Chartered Company. The second factor to which he had referred was the dread of a panic in Paris. He did not, however, believe that 50,000 Rhodesian shares were held in France; and why should any panic—the possibility of which, he believed, was getting more remote every day—have any effect upon the value of Rhodesian shares? He believed that all the leading "Kaffir" houses were now interested in Rhodesian properties on the bank line of reef. The discovery of the banket and, more recently, of diamonds showed that, from a mineral point of view, Rhodesia had not yet been properly prospected. The pioneers of the country seemed to have devoted their attention to small but rich reefs, whereas the most competent engineers stated that the future of Rhodesia was not to be based upon small rich reefs, but upon large low-grade properties, of which there were a considerable number. They had probably all noted, from the Chartered Company's recent report and the Chairman's speech at the general meeting, the progress which Rhodesia was making not only from a mining but also from the agricultural and pastoral standpoint. The production of gold in the past 11 months had been 369,932 oz., or 102,195 oz. more than the yield in 1904. Some years ago the Chartered Company announced their intention in future of taking a 30 per cent. interest in vendors' scrip on floated ground instead of 50 per cent.; but this concession was practically no concession at all, as the Chartered Company had already contented themselves with an interest of 33½ per cent. He maintained that the reduced rate of 30 per cent. was still too high, and in the interests of the Chartered Company and of the territory they administered he urged them to give this question consideration. The outlook—mining, agricultural, commercial, and industrial—seemed decidedly brighter in Rhodesia. He moved the adoption of the report.

Dr. Hans Sauer seconded the motion, which after some questions had been answered, was carried with two dissentients.

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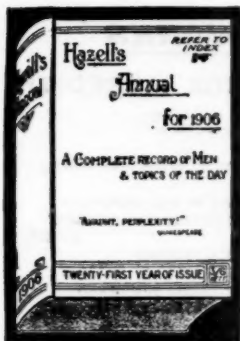
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REPORT OF THE DIRECTORS

To be submitted at the 7th Annual General Meeting of Shareholders to be held at Messrs. Lewis & Marks' Buildings, Corner of Simmonds and President Streets, Johannesburg, on Friday, the 9th day of February, 1906, at 12 o'clock Noon.

YOUR DIRECTORS beg to submit their Seventh Annual Report and Balance-sheet and Profit and Loss Account for the year ended 30th September, 1905. These Accounts have been duly audited, and the Auditor's Certificate is attached.

CAPITAL.

The Capital of your Company is unchanged, and stands at £730,580, the whole of which has been issued. The Debentures which at the closing of last year's Accounts stood at £30,400 now stand at £20,400, £8,600 having been redeemed during the year, and provision made for the redemption of £1,400.

PROPERTY.

The property of your Company has been added to during the year under review by the purchase of the freehold farm "Reuter" No. 450, District of Heilbron, Orange River Colony, in extent 2,116'540 acres, and also by the purchase of a further portion of the farm "Vyffontein" No. 3, District of Potchefstroom, Transvaal Colony, in extent 282'244 acres, making the total acreage now owned by the Company 129,093 acres, of which 49,346 acres are situated in the Transvaal Colony, and 79,746 in the Orange River Colony. This is equal to an area of 201'648 square miles, of which 154'879 square miles are of coal formation.

ACCOUNTS.

The net profit from the operations of your Company during the year amounts to £22,430 13s. 2d. sterling. This amount, together with a sum of £3,000 sterling set aside in last year's accounts for contingent losses, has been added to the balance of £110,670 19s. 11d. previously brought forward, thus increasing the amount standing at the credit of Profit and Loss Account to £113,670 13s. 11d. Owing chiefly to the unfortunate disaster at the Central Mine which is referred to hereafter, and to the fact that no satisfactory settlement has been obtained of the Company's claims against the Imperial Government in respect of matters arising from the late war, which claims your Directors do not therefore deem it advisable to continue to include in the assets, the depreciation and the writings-off in connection with the Accounts for the past year have been exceptionally heavy, amounting in the aggregate to £72,095 8s. 4d. sterling, which amount has to be deducted from the balance standing at the credit of profit and loss account, thus reducing this amount to £41,575 5s. 7d. sterling.

MINES.

The work at the Company's two mines during the year has resulted in the extraction and sale of 280,068 tons of coal.

On the 24th May last it was discovered that a fire had broken out in some of the old and disused workings of the Central Mine, and it is with the deepest regret that the Directors have to report that in the endeavour to trace the source of the fire several valuable lives were lost, the number of fatalities being increased by the brave attempts made at rescue. The fullest inquiry was made into the unfortunate occurrence, and it was conclusively proved that no blame attached to anyone for the disaster. Owing to this accident and to the temporary closing down of the Central Mine in consequence thereof, the Company suffered serious loss both directly and indirectly. Your Directors are happy to state that the mine is now working satisfactorily again, and effective measures have been taken to isolate that portion of the mine where the fire occurred.

Your Directors wish to place on record their appreciation of the bravery shown by the whole of the staff and employees at the mines at the time of the disaster.

The Cornelia Mine is opening out well, and shows a seam of coal of good thickness and of excellent quality.

MANAGEMENT.

Mr. W. H. Lewis, for many years Manager of the Great Eastern Collieries, has been appointed General Manager of the coal mines, and he has under him at the Central Mine Mr. William Davies, and at the Cornelia Mr. Morgan Quick.

COAL SALES.

The coal being produced is of good quality, and gives every satisfaction to the consumers, and your Directors continue to find a ready sale for it.

COAL CONTRACTS.

Since the last report was presented to you, contracts for the supply of coal during the year 1905 to the Cape Government Railways and to the Central South African Railways Administrations have been secured, and these are now current.

FARMING AND ESTATE OPERATIONS.

Having in view the natural fertility of the soil on your Company's lands and their very favourable situation, your Directors are continuing to give their earnest attention to this side of the Company's work. A considerable revenue is already being obtained, and there is every reason to hope this will continue to increase year by year. Both the white and native tenants are increasing in number.

HORSE BREEDING.

On the farm "Schaapplaats," which was devastated during the late war, a re-commencement has been made in horse-breeding.

SHEEP FARMING.

Your Directors having made careful investigation, and upon the advice of competent authorities that the Company's lands are eminently suited to the purpose, are now considering a scheme for carrying on sheep farming on the Estates upon a large scale.

TREE PLANTATIONS.

The Maccauvlei Tree Plantations have been further extended during the year, and now cover an area of 3,000 acres, the trees numbering 3,012,954, being an increase of 60,226 trees during the year. Accompanying this report is a Plan of the Plantations, showing the various species of trees being cultivated. These Plantations are looked upon by your Directors as a very valuable asset of the Company, and although the value of the Plantations is now many times that of the original cost, the policy is being continued of not appreciating the value in any way in the accounts, and they are taken at actual cost price.

WITWATERSRAND BEDS.

Your Directors regret that the work so far undertaken in connection with the boring operations foreshadowed in their previous report has not met with success. The annexed Report by Dr. F. H. Hatch gives full particulars regarding this work.

RIVER SCHEME.

In view of the large holding of building stands which your Company possesses in the town of Vereeniging, your directors intend to make the place attractive as a pleasure resort. With this object in view, a weir across the river (the position of which is indicated on the accompanying Plan) is in course of construction, and now nearing completion. This work will provide a fine stretch of water of fair depth for a number of miles up the river, and will give excellent facilities for boating and fishing at all periods of the year. Trees are being planted along the banks of the river, and drives are being laid out, and it is anticipated that the scheme will result in making Vereeniging a popular resort of pleasure seekers and holiday makers from the Rand and other parts of the country, and that this will add largely to the value of your Estate and considerably augment the revenue of your Company. Vereeniging is on the main line of railway within convenient distance from Johannesburg, and at present there is hardly any other place within easy access of the latter town which offers such attractions for visitors.

VEREENIGING BRICK AND TILE COMPANY.

This Company is making progress and is overcoming the initial difficulties incidental to the establishment of such an industry in a new country.

The clays upon the Estate have been proved to be of excellent quality, and entirely suitable to the manufacture of the best quality of bricks, tiles, pipes, &c. The Company has entered into contracts for supplying the Government and other public bodies, and its manufactures are competing favourably with the imported articles.

DIRECTORS.

In terms of the Company's Articles of Association, Messrs. Samuel Marks and J. Emrys Evans, C.M.G., two of the Company's Directors, retire by rotation. They are eligible and offer themselves for re-election.

AUDITORS.

The present Auditor of the Company is Mr. John Mackilligan, who retires, but offers himself for re-election. You are requested to fix the remuneration for the audit of the accounts for the past period, and to appoint an Auditor for the ensuing year.

J. N. DE JONGH, Chairman.
E. H. DUNNING,
J. EMRYS EVANS, } Directors.
S. MARKS,

Johannesburg, November 27th, 1905.

BALANCE SHEET as at 30th September, 1905.

		LIABILITIES.			
		£	s. d.	£	s. d.
Capital—					
Authorised 730,580 Shares of £1 each				730,580	0 0
Debentures—					
Authorised 3,500 at £100 each ..		350,000	0 0		
Less Reserve 1,000 at £100 each ..		100,000	0 0		
				250,000	0 0
.. Converted into Shares	219,600	0 0			
.. Redeemed	10,000	0 0			
				209,600	0 0
Vereeniging Erven Suspense Account				20,400	0 0
Creditors				73,700	0 0
Balance at Credit as per Appropriation Account				51,326	13 5
				64,026	6 9
				£940,032	19 3
		ASSETS.			
		£	s. d.		
Farms		540,431	18 6		
Maccauvlei Tree Plantation		35,915	8 4		
Leeuwkuil Vineyard and other Industries		5,883	13 9		
Machinery and Plant		57,864	5 6		
Buildings		57,752	9 5		
Permanent Works		57,505	19 6		
Fencing		7,018	8 9		
Estates Survey		1,545	5 11		
Estates Steam Ploughing, Vyffontein		339	11 3		
Livestocks, Vehicles, and Harness		8,306	4 6		
Stocks on Hand		19,332	5 11		
Insurance, Licences, &c., paid in advance		229	18 9		
Debtors		50,174	7 5		
Rand Mutual Assurance Company		198	0 0		
Deposit against 76 Shares					
NOTE.—There is a liability of £9 per Share on these Shares.					
Witwatersrand Native Labour Association		399	0 0		
Subscription for 240 Shares in Association					
Vereeniging Township Erven		73,700	0 0		
737 unoccupied Stands at £100 each					
Vereeniging Brick and Tile Co., Ltd.		22,500	0 0		
Share Investment					
Vaal River Weir and Improvements		1,213	18 1		
Cash in Hand		46	3 7		
				£940,032	19 3

I have compared the above Balance Sheet with the Books and Vouchers of the Company and certify that in my opinion such Balance Sheet is properly drawn up so as to exhibit a true and correct view of the state of the Company's affairs as shown by the books of the Company.

(Signed) JOHN MACKILLIGAN, Auditor.

Johannesburg,
24th November, 1905.

PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT from 1st October, 1904, to 30th September, 1905.

		£	s. d.
General Charges		7,207	0 9
Interest on Debentures		1,138	8 0
Maintenance		16,927	3 7
Taxes on Erven		436	18 3
Premium on Debentures Redeemed		500	0 0
Balance carried to Appropriation Account		22,430	15 3
		£48,780	5 9
		£	s. d.
Profit on Coal Winning, Farming, &c.		38,314	18 5
Rents		2,783	16 7
Royalties		2,594	17 2
Sundry Revenue		1,118	14 0
Royalty Suspense Account—now settled		3,968	19 7
		£48,780	5 9

APPROPRIATION ACCOUNT.

		£	s. d.
Sundry Writings Off		40,453	5 10
Depreciation		31,643	2 6
Balance carried to Balance Sheet		64,026	6 9
		£136,121	15 1
		£	s. d.
Balance at 30th September, 1904		110,670	19 11
Profit, year ending 30th September, 1905		22,430	15 3
Amount provided for contingent losses now re-transferred		3,000	0 0
		£136,121	15 1

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